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Continuing The Historical Outlook

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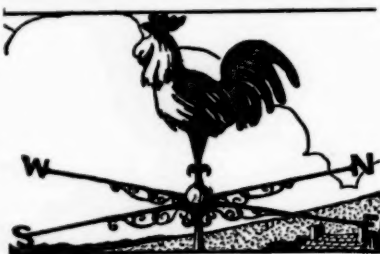
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The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXVIII, NUMBER 7

NOVEMBER, 1947

Implementing the Democratic Ideal

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Every philosophy poses a dilemma, having within itself a paradox which furnishes the basis of its own negation. Thus, in religious philosophy, men quite generally have assumed as a major premise the omnipotence of their deities. Yet the question arises, as it did in ancient Hellas: Has any diety the power to create a stone so heavy that he cannot lift it? Whether we answer this question affirmatively or negatively, we deny omnipotence.

Again, Rousseau and others have urged that man should be "natural." Obviously, however, it is "natural" for man to be artificial. Without artificiality, man, granting that he could survive, would be sub-human. Artificiality may be thought of as the distinguishing mark of our common humanity. The entire social heritage is a stupendous artificiality. Nevertheless, it came into being naturally enough.

Philosophers are given to the making of generalizations. In fact, it is by making generalizations that they prove themselves philosophers. Notwithstanding this, the truly philosophical accept the implications of this statement: "Generalizations are never true—not even this one." Ours is a universe of relativity. Or, is it?

The foregoing observations are not merely facetious. In themselves they set forth a philosophy, a kind of Hegelianism, to be applied in the appraisal of other philosophies.

Added to the paradoxes inherent in the various philosophies, there is another obstacle to

clear thinking. This is the difficulty men experience when attempting interchange of ideas on the plane of the abstract. In trying to express their convictions, men in general resort to the use of familiar catchwords. As the terms employed have different meanings to different persons, it follows that no exactitude of interchange takes place.

Thus, aside from the consideration that in highly controversial matters facts are difficult to ascertain, philosophic paradoxes and verbal ambiguities lie in wait to assure our confusion. At any rate, with these things in mind, we need not be mystified by the multiplicity of "isms." The great religions break up into innumerable warring sects. Within the ranks of a single political party are to be found "right," "left," and "center," with various gradations among these. Communism has its orthodox to be emulated and its heretics to be liquidated. "Schools" of historians are well-known. Divisive tendencies continuously manifest themselves among the votaries of the sciences and the arts.

Under such circumstances, many of those aspiring to leadership have a way of following procedures remarkably like the devices employed by some of our publicity men who try to make their advertisements "as large as the sky, as lurid as hell, as noisy as a thunderstorm, and as persistent as stubbornness itself."¹ Reliance is thus placed upon sensationalism.

¹ Pitirim Sorokin, *Social Mobility*, p. 518.

Democracy, as a slogan, has wide acceptance today. Much lip-service is given to the word. For an individual to speak disparagingly of democracy would, in many quarters, subject him to public condemnation. The term itself, however, is used with varying connotations. To one, "democracy" means something which might well be designated "communism." Another sees no incongruity in applying the term to a highly-stratified society.

It may be illuminating to know that the term "democracy" is derived from two Greek words signifying "rule of the people," but this information alone is far from giving us a clear understanding of the social process as affected by the so-called democratic ideal of ancient Athens. In the first place, the great majority of the inhabitants of the Athenian city-state were not citizens, and hence, did not possess the franchise. Many were actually slaves. Then, Athenian women, like members of their sex in the United States during the greater part of its history, had no direct part in government. When Pericles spoke of democracy, the masses—the non-citizens—were not within his horizon.²

All the people cannot rule—anywhere. When understood as rule resulting from the balloting of all adults within a group, democracy implies majority dominance. The minority, then, must accept political frustration. And citizens below the designated voting age are expected to submit to whatever benevolent despotism their elders—that is to say, a majority of their elders—choose to exercise.

In seeming harmony with the widely acknowledged democratic idealism of the *Social Contract*, the Declaration of Independence, and the Gettysburg Address, it is said that men everywhere ought to be free. Yet if all were "free," none would be "free." In a "free" society, the minority is not "free" to disregard the mandates of the majority. Otherwise, social chaos would result. In any society there are responsibilities as well as privileges, and responsibilities are restraints upon "freedom." In order that a society may be really "free," it is necessary for the individuals composing it to learn somewhat early that the good citizen must often suffer curtailment of his personal

freedom in the interests of the welfare of all. A society "where everyone can do as he pleases" is an impossibility comparable to the smile of the Cheshire cat.

Such personal "freedoms," or "rights," or "privileges," as those of speech, press, and religion, are relative, not absolute. No government will tolerate the propaganda of those who consider themselves "free" to advocate the overthrow of that same government. A religion "freely" violating group moral standards will

It should be apparent that such a term as be suppressed.

"democracy" is difficult to define. Furthermore, it should be apparent that, having defined it to the best of human ability, the term would still mean different things to different persons. What passes by the name of "democracy" will continue to take on varied forms, according to outward circumstances and according to the psychological biases constituting the media of its expression.

We may consider here something analogous in the use of the term "Christianity." Despite the existence of Christianity in many forms, the ardent creedist may maintain that his particular creed offers the only sure way of salvation. Yet, assuredly, the most obdurate creedist knows what is meant by a "Christian" act. All Christians, perhaps, would agree that a pagan might perform such an act. There is that about Christianity which transcends all creedal obsessions.

Thus it is with democracy. Notwithstanding all its divergent interpretations, democracy as an ideal appears to have a residual quality impelling men to think somewhat in terms of human brotherhood. To many, it is the continuing endeavor to bring the principles of justice and fair play into the fullest possible practice, to hold forth constantly the hope of the good life for all in a world without a slave and without a tyrant. Expressing this concept, Lincoln wrote:

As I would not be a *slave*, so I would not be a *master*. This expresses my idea of democracy. Whatever differs from this, to the extent of the difference, is no democracy.

In a characteristic manner, Lincoln has brought the matter under discussion down out of the metaphysical. Such a confession of faith leaves little room for mumbo-jumbo.

² *The Funeral Oration* (431, B. C.)

Speaking in favor of a welfare program designed to benefit his fellow-countrymen, a former president of Mexico made use of language to which Lincoln would undoubtedly have given approval, and which, for those like-minded with Lincoln, serves to delineate the traits of the democratic ideal when translated into action:

It seeks to vindicate the purest principles of humanitarian ethics, to uphold the clearest postulates of Universal Good. It dreams and strives for an attainable condition of well-being in which the number of those who suffer shall each day grow less, [and] in which the book may give instruction to all.³

The disparity between democratic professions and actual practice can never be reconciled by dogmatic utterances. Of course, some persons, doubtless, would be pained to contemplate such a reconciliation.

Laws of a certain kind are unquestionably helpful in setting up conditions favorable to the practice of the Golden Rule, but laws themselves are outcomes of mental attitudes and upon such attitudes they are dependent for their effectiveness. Experience has shown that laws, even the most humanitarian in intent, may be either ignored, or obeyed in the letter and not in the spirit.

It should be clear, therefore, that the implementation of Lincolnian democracy is to be brought about through the development of appropriate psychological tendencies. Praising democracy is all very well, but there appears to be a need for categorical statements as to what democratically minded persons should be expected to do.

Now attitudes of mind are largely inculcated in childhood and youth, which fact brings upon the school a measure of responsibility in this matter of learning the democratic way of life. This is nothing new, but many of us are coming to believe that there is room for a better comprehension of what constitutes the democratic way of life within the school. Through such comprehension, opportunity would be widened for the young to learn an enlightened manner of living by practicing it. With a background of this kind, there would be a likelihood of

carry-over to adult life.

As to explicit statements regarding democratic behavior, it may be said that lists of such statements do occasionally appear. All lists of this nature tend to emphasize individual responsibility and to refute the ill-considered notion that in a democracy we may "do exactly as we please."

A set of statements relating to democratic behavior was published in *The School Board Journal*.⁴ This particular series was formulated by a committee of teachers at Passaic, New Jersey, as a result of a city-wide program of curriculum development and revision. The task was performed in order that school and community living might be evaluated in terms of "specific and concrete behavior patterns."

The series consists of fifteen separate statements, each representing a supposedly democratic attitude. The presentation is excellent, but tends toward the repetitious. The introduction and six of the statements read:

We believe in and will endeavor to make a democracy in which persons *behave* as follows:

1. They respect the individual personality.
2. They are considerate of others.
3. They cooperate with others.
9. They govern themselves for the common good.
11. They are tolerant.
12. They speak, think, and act freely, with due regard for the rights of others.

The second statement includes all the others presented here. The only way to be democratically minded is to be "considerate of others."

The writer of this paper has made a list of attitudes which he regards as essential to the implementation of the democratic ideal, particularly as it has to do with the school. In the hope that it may be helpful, the entire list is given:

1. Our school shall have no creed, excepting the Golden Rule.
2. Our policy shall be one of encouragement.
3. We shall attempt to attain our goals through cooperation.
4. We shall continue to believe that subject-

³ From an address by Plutarco Elias Calles, quoted in the Preface to *Educación Pública en México* (1926), pp. xvi-xvii.

⁴ Willard B. Spalding and W. C. Kvaraceus, "What Do We Mean By Democracy?" *The American School Board Journal*, 108 (February, 1944), 50. Note: Dr. Spalding is now Dean of the School of Education, University of Illinois.

matter is important, but we shall also continue to believe that human beings are more important—and much more interesting.

5. Hour by hour we shall know that courses of study and school regulations are means, not ends.

6. As a teaching procedure, we shall keep in mind the easy gradient.

7. We shall recognize that the curriculum is really the sum total of the learner's experiences.

8. We shall try to grow in patience and in understanding, by no means forgetting scholarship.

9. When perplexed by a problem arising out of inconsiderate behavior, we shall strive to do the kindest thing possible under the circumstances.

10. Cruelty and revenge shall have no place in our lives.

11. What the wisest and best parent would desire for his child, that, according to the means within our power, we shall endeavor to weave into the experiences of those committed to our charge.

12. For every child in our school there shall be song and play and laughter, as well as meaningful work.

13. We shall exemplify the democratic way of

life by earnestly seeking those benefits for others which we also desire for ourselves.

14. We shall not permit ourselves to be too much cast down because of our own failures, or because of the failures of others, and we shall not cease to try to make use of our opportunities to create and maintain a harmonious and progressive school society.

Teacher orientation in the field of school democracy is one of the purposes intended to be served by the foregoing. If we grant the truth of the saying, "As the teacher is, so is the school," this procedure constitutes the proper approach. For the goal is the more fully democratized school, and, ultimately, by this means, a more fully democratized society—a society in which each earnestly seeks those benefits for others which he also desires for himself.

A democratic society, then, is envisaged as "free," with its members freely participating in benefits shared by all and freely carrying responsibilities shared by all. In such a society, freedom and duty must be watchwords. The centripetal must counterbalance the centrifugal. Through the practice of real democracy, the seeming paradox in the philosophy of democracy is thus resolved. There are difficulties, but no contradictions, in a program of mutual helpfulness.

Education for International Understanding

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"America, America, God shed his grace on thee,
And crown thy good with brotherhood from
sea to shining sea!"¹

We sing, but do we practice the keynote of peace sounded in Katharine Lee Bates' poem? Do we have that feeling of brotherhood, "good will toward men," which must exist not only in America, but in all the world, if we are to have "peace on earth?"

Our attitude toward peace and war is not a matter of inherited instinct but is due to the ideals and beliefs developed in our youth. A

teacher in the public schools can do much for world peace, for she has the students during their most impressionable years, and her influence over them is far-reaching.

Some years ago a questionnaire was sent to members of the American Psychological Association asking them whether or not they felt that war was caused by the war-like fighting instinct. Seventy per cent of my colleagues answered the question. Of this number 346 said "No." If we accept the conclusions, we must believe that wars are the result of avarice and human stupidity. Wars are caused by the love

¹ Used with permission.

for gain and profit. Today wars are caused over markets, oil, trade, mineral deposits and because of the desire of nations for self-aggrandizement.

There is nothing romantic or glorious about modern war. Today, war includes the killing of innocent women and children. War now reaches non-combatants as well as combatants. Modern war is a brutal and inhuman business of killing human beings for the mere sake of annihilation.

Modern wars are very costly also. World War I cost 387 billion dollars, as well as hundreds of thousands of lives. According to the late President Coolidge, it cost the United States 100 billion dollars for its share. World War II cost the world over ten million lives. Economists have not yet completed totaling the cost of this war to the United States, but it will be at least five times as much as for World War I.

We need now to develop the international spirit, not merely to help other peoples, but in order to keep our own country out of future wars. We must teach our boys and girls the truth about other nations.

The narrow and bigoted nationalism of our past has no place in our modern world. The old slogan, "My country, right or wrong" does not make for peace. Today we must inculcate an enlightened internationalism which teaches that "Humanity is First." We must realize that justice must prevail in our relations with other nations. Cooperation and neighborliness must be the keynotes of our foreign policy. We must do away with trade barriers, language barriers and "iron curtains." Peace can be founded only on good-will and brotherhood.

The challenge that faces us as teachers is tremendous. To a great extent, we have the future in our hands. It is not sufficient for us to know and to give lip-service to these facts that wars are not inevitable and that they are caused primarily by economic factors. We must inculcate the fact that the way to world peace lies through good-will and brotherhood.

"Blessed are the peacemakers" is a challenge to all teachers. It is possible to drift into war, but peace has to be definitely made. We, as teachers, through intelligence, courage and tact must seek to develop good-will and brotherhood among our youth; and thus aid them in forming everlasting bonds of peace.

World History and English

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The impact of World War II upon the high schools of America will, among other things, probably be discernible in a revised curriculum. One has only to recall the influx of vocational subjects following World War I to begin wondering just what kind of a change we can expect in the curriculum. This time, however, it is hardly possible to add new subjects to fill the needs of pupils in the "new world." The curriculum has been expanded so much that one can hardly add any more subjects now without taking some out. This statement immediately raises the question as to whether the present high school curriculum adequately meets the needs of high school youth today or whether it may not be sadly out of date.

In Michigan, a need for curriculum changes was felt even before the war started. A Curriculum Survey Commission was set up to study and experiment with curriculum revision in some 50 various high schools in the state. Many communities whose economic make-up had completely changed in the past generation were found to be offering practically the same subjects to their high school students as they did before the economic changes. In the present phase of its 12-year existence, the Commission meets with classroom teachers and administrators in informal conferences to disseminate information gathered and to encourage individual high schools to survey their respective communities and to make their high

schools meet the needs of their own particular students. The work is indeed timely, for we are in an era of change, an era of receptiveness to new suggestions.

As a result of one of these interesting conferences, the writers were persuaded to initiate a fused course in "World History and English" for the twelfth grade. It is significant that the experiment was "sold" to the administration by the teachers themselves, for it was built from the bottom up. We simply have to make it work; we asked for it. This is the spirit which seems to us quite essential to the fair fulfillment of any experiment in education and an unbiased evaluation of its results.

There are times when we both wonder why we did it. But, on the other hand, there must be hundreds of other English and social science teachers who feel as we do—that students for the most part, are coming in our courses because they have to take them. So, they go through the ordeal as if it were the measles, with little after-effects. We are mindful of the fact that one can meet the challenge, as hundreds of teachers do, under the traditional curriculum. The good teacher teaches what the pupils need, regardless of labels. No new gadget has more clearly demonstrated this truism than integration of social science and English. The best general statement we can make at the outset is that a combination of world history and English is no more than a means of making a good cake better.

Most high schools seem to offer world history in the tenth grade as background study for American history in the eleventh grade. This seems logical, but we are now very doubtful if it is practicable. Our seniors seemed to be so much more benefited by world history than the sophomores formerly were, that we wonder why we didn't change long ago. Wouldn't it be just as logical to have, for example, local history in grade nine, state and regional history in grade ten, national and hemisphere history in grade 11, and world history in grade 12? "There is a major fallacy abroad that we can have general education without first having specific education," writes Edgar Dale in the *Ohio State University News Letter* (November, 1946).

We started the year with a unit study of local history, partly because the students were ignorant of it, and partly, also, to acquaint the students with the procedure. When the students were well "up to their ears" in historical detail and eagerly seeking more, they happily welcomed the English teacher to get them back to shore—put their notes in order and make a creditable composition on their subject. They developed a habit of consulting with their English teacher upon innumerable problems many of which are very remotely connected with communication. This was an outcome we hadn't looked for, at least in the way it developed.

English, both oral and written, can, of course, be worked into every unit of world history. When woven in this way, students see the study in its proper perspective—as a tool by which to acquire and impart knowledge. If an urge for expression can be created through wide reading upon some historical problem, a good deal of effective teaching in the English skills can be done painlessly. We have noticed more improvement in oral English than in any other phase of our subject, and more than if English has been taught separately. In written composition, improvement is slow. Mistakes must be pointed out time and again. The wrong habits persist and the right ones are slow in forming. But we have greater satisfaction in our situation because there is an undercurrent of need and a real, conscious effort to improve.

It is recommended that two teachers work together in a course of this type in order that one or the other of the subjects in the combination may not be neglected. This matter of neglecting one or the other seems to be the shoal on which most integrated courses are wrecked. Only one teacher is in charge of the class at a time. To begin with, the other teacher took this time to leave the room and plan the next unit, but now at the end of the semester we find ourselves both present all the time. Both teachers should be credited with two classes in figuring teacher-pupil load and teaching time in a fused course running two consecutive periods as is true in our schedule.

Basic texts seem very desirable for furnishing a framework, or an agenda, without which teacher-pupil load and teaching time would have to be greatly reduced from what most high schools call "normal" today. We follow the

chronological order of the history text and try to fit the English into this scheme. We admit that the literature may have suffered this first semester but this is due to the fact that most of the time has been devoted to the ancient period. We have retained the identity of the subjects on the permanent records. To do otherwise would be too revolutionary!

Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon the need for an abundance of teaching aids, for plenty of reference books, and perhaps a room with a stage. Traditional school room atmosphere can be eliminated by providing tables, with chairs around them, inasmuch as most of the projects are worked out by students in groups. After a broad, general reading of the Roman Empire from the texts, for example, students come up with a great many ideas of what they would like to do and unless there is an abundance of materials to work with, little more can be accomplished here than in the traditional manner.

The problem of poor readers must be attacked in this course by providing reference books beginning with sixth or seventh grade reading difficulty and up to the very scholarly works. "Bait the Balkers," writes Jessie F. Woodman in the *English Journal* (May, 1946), and she describes the procedure we have used to allow pupils to browse and change books until they find their levels quite naturally. There is no substitute for reading, and more reading. Literature and history can hardly be anything else. One of the greatest satisfactions the writers of this paper have experienced in teaching the course has been the enthusiasm of poor readers when they had books to read which they could understand. There is of course, opportunity to do remedial work if there are those who cannot read up to their mental capacity. It is recommended that unless a generous appropriation for graded reading material be made available, a laboratory course of this type ought not to be tried.

The double period has an advantage in providing opportunity for the teachers to become well acquainted with each student and to do guidance work. Seniors in high school have personal problems, too. The problems crop out here and there in connection with this subject and that. It would be a mistake not to take

plenty of time at the psychological moments to discuss personal problems both individually and for the whole class. The writers have had more consultation in this class than they have in any other class, and more than they originally planned for. They have run the gamut of topics in the dictionary from Abacus to Zygote. the favorite subjects pupils want to talk about are movies and entertainments.

Complete integration of literature and history is probably not possible nor desirable. There is bound to be some body of literature studied simply for its cultural value and not necessarily for its historical significance. One question of integration to which these writers have given considerable thought has been that of whether to teach literature at the age or era of the author or of the subject about which the literature is written; for example, whether Macauley's *Lays of Ancient Rome* should be taught at the time of a study of the Roman Empire, or at the time of Macauley's England. After trying both methods, we prefer the latter. There seems to be greater unification of the study of literature when the point of departure is the author.

We have had some difficulty retaining an essential unity of subject matter when we upset the established order of things. We have found ourselves doing this and doing that, and doing something else; then, when a mass of different things have been accomplished, we have wondered how to make them mean something. Students have expressed bewilderment at the mass of reading material upon each unit and just what they should consider relevant. They practically asked for a quick review of the unit, a quiz, or a summary, to "tie it up in a bundle before it is put away." It is difficult to permit complete freedom of studying a matter in great detail and still keep foremost the main theme of the whole. The teacher becomes a coordinator which is essentially the proper position of the teacher.

Our colleagues have frequently asked us about our discipline problems. We have a good sampling of seniors, thirty-three in number, varying from one extreme to another in all respects. The class has threatened to become a junior Ladies Aid more than once, not because there are twice as many girls as boys, but because there

is a good opportunity in a class of this kind to catch up on some gossiping. The teaching of self-discipline we feel to be one of our objectives, and we have found that to get best results there must be immediate objectives before the class at all times. Things to do must be done now and not next week, or else the pupils will lapse into an attitude of not worrying about their tasks until later. Of course, there must be more remote objectives, too. However, the steps to reach these objectives constitute the busy-work which must be planned for in advance in order that mischief be kept out.

The writers themselves have learned more than a little about discipline, too. After a rather disorderly session—when we have wondered if there has been any learning at all—we have invariably been pleasantly surprised. In other words, we are not so sure but that some matters which we consider irrelevant, but which interest our students, might not be of more value to them than the “important” matter we have to give them. Briefly, the less we do, the more the students learn. “Our compulsion about covering specified subject matter in the social science field is often almost neurotic,” writes Edgar Dale further in the *News Letter*. “Subject matter is of importance only as it contributes to human behavior of some sort. It must make a difference to the individual, change him in some vital particular. For example, the fact that history is often forgotten merely shows that it is not taught so that it affects

any tangible task which the individual performs.”

The proof of the pudding is probably best expressed, in the last analysis, by those who must eat it, the students themselves. These opinions we have tried to gather in unguarded instances together with significant expressions in formal themes. All students have expressed amazement at the great mass of reading material available on every topic, and admitted reading a great deal more than they have ever done in any course before, “not that we are forced to do so, but just because it’s necessary.” There are some students who “like English better than history,” or vice versa, and would like more of the one or the other.

If we want to keep all of our youth in high school, we must give them what they want and need. It is hardly pertinent for us to complain that the mentality of the average student has declined and then just pound away at the same subject matter and seek a reward in the hereafter. The school must be cut to fit the needs of the students who go there. Their objectives must be given great consideration, just as they are, no doubt, by thousands of teachers under different subject labels. We believe a realignment of the schedule and curriculum gives a fresher atmosphere in which to achieve those results which all teachers have in mind and strive for under the traditional “saber-tooth” curriculum.

A New Basis for Our Immigration Policy

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When people with different views on immigration discuss the subject, they usually indulge in an acrimonious debate, rehashing all the traditional arguments for and against the further restriction of immigration. The opponents of further restriction, filled with a passion for social righteousness, cite the American tradition of refuge to the oppressed, quote Emma Lazarus’ poem inscribed on the Statue of Liberty, and list the contributions which

immigrants have made to the building of a great America, ending with a reminder that all the residents of the United States, except the Indians, are immigrants or their descendants. Many financiers, businessmen, and industrialists favor increased immigration, in their desire for larger internal markets and labor pools. On the other hand, labor opposes more immigration, fearing the importation of cheap competitive labor with subsequent un-

employment and lower wages. Farmers also would stop immigration, dreading over-production. Others objecting to immigrants are some veterans' organizations, many patriotic organizations, and those pseudo-scientists, who, without a shred of reliable factual evidence, violently attack immigration as a source of physical and mental disease, of crime, and of public charges. Immigrants are also opposed as a source of subversive activity.

Intelligent citizens, with a genuinely patriotic responsibility for the welfare of their country, should examine the facts inherent in the problem before making a decision. So important a policy in our national life ought not to be decided in terms of a preconceived bias. It is important to find out how many and what kinds of immigrants the United States is capable of absorbing and how large a population the United States can support. One geographer, Dr. Griffith Taylor of Toronto, says we can support 500 millions. But the American citizen would like to know where the additional persons could be settled and how they could prosper.

How do other countries determine their immigration policies? Some nations regard as the proper criteria the benefit to, and the needs of, the country receiving the immigrants, rather than the demands of certain classes within that country. For example, Australia and the Argentine recognize that certain of their underpopulated areas are strategic for defense, which recognition is reflected in their immigration policies which seek to satisfy that need by increasing the population of their strategic defense areas. The aging of the farm population in her Maritime Provinces, where the farms are well established, has been noted by Canada, which realizes that young, healthy immigrants who could carry on the farms would be a desirable addition to her population in that area. Similarly New Zealand discovered that an aging population demands an influx of youths, lacking which, continued operation of the social security program is impossible. Ecuador wants men to settle in fertile and underpopulated areas. Mexico's preference is for bachelors who will marry Mexican girls and invest in Mexican enterprises. The immigrants desired by the Argentine, Brazil, and

Venezuela are farmers, technicians and wealthy investors.

In some countries, scientific investigators have found that underpopulated, marginal land which had seemed useless is actually potentially rich in resources. Such an example is Russia, which has developed her now productive sub-Arctic area. Another is Palestine, where the saline soil south of the Dead Sea was pronounced capable of reclamation by an expert of the United States Department of Agriculture, and when cleansed of salt, the region has brought forth abundantly. As early as 1941 the Dominican Republic, desiring to increase its population and develop its resources for the nation's benefit, based its immigration policy on a survey of the country's natural agricultural and industrial resources, trends, needs, and economic possibilities.

Unfortunately we have no accurate, complete information concerning American needs and possibilities for immigrants for the whole United States, area by area.

We know, for example, that the system of dams in the southwestern part of the United States is part of our national defense and necessary to our military strategy, and that as dams are built new areas are opened to development and settlement. We also are aware that Alaska is a strategic area from a military point of view, that it is potentially rich in resources, and that it is underpopulated. To what extent can the land in this and other areas be utilized and settled? Various opinions have been expressed but no certain, reliable information is currently available. Where are the American underpopulated areas? What are their potential resources and hazards? How can they be peopled without jeopardizing the rights and opportunities of veterans, labor and our other citizenry?

These questions can be answered only by a scientific investigation of our country's needs and an inventory of its resources, region by region. The collection of these data would then form the basis for a sound, long-range immigration policy.

The experts selected for determining the nature and extent of our country's need for immigration should constitute an independent, honest, fact-finding group, not controlled by

any bureaucratic hierarchy and not subservient to any political clique. Above all, they should be persons of unimpeachable intellectual integrity, for if they lack these attributes, their findings would have no validity or reliability. The experts should include geographers, agricultural specialists, professors of industry, and military and population experts. The pooling of their findings concerning the physical and social aspects of the study should form the basis for a sound policy.

When undeveloped areas have been located, their exact boundaries should be shown and their physical resources inventoried. The geographer, using the methods of a town planner on a larger scale, aids in the development of the nation. He can determine an area's surface relief, fertility of soil, water supply, available food supply, other resources, isolation or accessibility, transportation facilities, ways of living, climate, presence of disease, opportunities for industry and the capacity of the land to bear increased population of different degrees of cultural and economic development. A good illustration of the work done by geographers in natural development is the achievement of the twelve geographers under the Tennessee Valley Authority.

Agricultural specialists would contribute to this investigation by making soil surveys showing the amount of soil available for immediate use and that potentially available if drained or irrigated. They would also indicate the type of production for which the land is best suited, such as farming, truck gardens, dairying, etc. It will be their function to advise how the land may be conserved and to suggest measures to maintain it in a permanently productive state under maximum use. They will aid in the reclamation of land and will show how idle land can be put to new uses.

Comparable studies of the industrial situation might indicate needs for various new industries which would increase employment and prosperity.

The military experts, whose function is defense, can indicate where manpower, dams, power-plants, etc., are essential. The contributions of the other experts likewise are necessary to the complete study.

When the exact physical factors in the environment have been correlated with the social factors, an intelligent and humane immigration policy can be framed, dealing honestly and decently with the immigrant and, what is of paramount importance, making a great contribution to the national welfare and to the national defense.

A New History Term Paper

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I

The large college classes of the post-war period present new problems to the conscientious instructor. Will the teacher "muddle through," or will he try to devise new and better technics of teaching? The experiment outlined below grew out of an effort to ease the burden of teaching large classes and of a conviction that there can and must be better methods than those commonly used.

Work at the college level has tried to make the student read carefully and critically. Before the war it was not uncommon for the

instructor to make assignments in several texts, copies of which were kept on reserve shelves. The student would thus become familiar with points of view other than that presented by the text for the course. But with classes grown from thirty to three hundred, this procedure becomes more difficult. The current shortage of books has added to the difficulty and yet it is felt that the student should become familiar with more than the facts and point of view presented by one text.

The term paper herein suggested attempts to partially solve the dilemma. It was assigned to students of the basic course in European

history for sophomores at Loyola University in Chicago. There were over two hundred fifty students for the second semester of 1947, who prepared papers for the course. The term paper was planned with the thought in mind of providing valuable experience for the student and yet making the work of supervision and reading as light as possible for the instructor.

II

The student is told that he may select his own topic—possibly a sentence or two from the textbook which seems to him particularly interesting or challenging, and yet not covering too broad a field. Let us say for example that he chooses the question of the assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand on the 28th of June, 1914. He will then proceed to collect statements from twenty-five other sources about the incident which precipitated the First World War. Each new source must be presented on a separate sheet of paper headed by the topic and sub-topic if any, to be followed by the author, title, publisher, date, city, volume, page and so forth. Then the exact words of the author must be given. In this respect the term paper becomes also an exercise in careful note-taking, which, it should be pointed out, will be invaluable to the student. After the twenty-five sources have been collected the student could carefully study them—and compare them. A summary will then be prepared by the student, not to exceed two pages in length, pointing out the differences of fact or opinion found, giving the student's own opinion if he has come to one, and lastly making an effort to evaluate the sources.

Let us go back to our example. The student would have discovered for himself that the statements in texts on this apparently clear and simple incident vary. Different facts are brought out. Some state that the Archduke went to Sarajevo in spite of the warnings not to go; some that the Archduke was murdered by Austrian subjects; some that the visit was a routine military one and that the murderers were known to the Intelligence Department of the Serbian government; and, some, that he was afforded insufficient police protection at Sarajevo. Even though the student would find no false statements or factual errors, he would find that many of the statements would suffer

for lack of completeness. The reader gets the impression from some that it was the Archduke's own lack of prudence that caused his death and from others that he was quite blameless and that it was entirely the responsibility of the careless Serbian government. No text might be found to make any direct imputation; nevertheless, the reader may be able to come to only one inevitable conclusion on the basis of the facts selected.

III

About fifteen per cent of the students failed to select their own topics and for them a list from which to choose was prepared. In introducing the project some care was taken to acquaint the students with acceptable sources and standard reference works. Care should also be taken to insist on uniformity and neatness. Not only, as mentioned above, will this be an exercise in note-taking, but it should impress the student with the necessity of knowing the exact sources of his information.

With respect to the two-page summary by the student, it may be objected—as a few students did object—that he can hardly be expected to evaluate all the sources. Perhaps only from the better students in the under-division group, can we expect such evaluation. But that is not our only, or primary, purpose. We aimed to give the student some idea first of all of the complexity and immensity of certain historical problems and further to show him how, by the selection of facts alone, opinions can be presented. This should make him a more careful and critical reader. It should make him more wary of historical generalizations, all too popular in this age of social thinking. The instructor, generally familiar with the topics, need do little more than scan them, and will only need to read carefully the two-page summary, to obtain an estimate of the student's critical ability.

A poll was taken to secure the opinions of the students on this type of paper. They were asked at the end of the semester to write a short unsigned paper indicating their approval or disapproval and making any suggestions they cared to. Seventy-four per cent of the comments were generally favorable; fifteen per cent were generally unfavorable; eleven per cent were favorable with reservations. In the first

group the remarks ranged from mere approval to statements of considerable enthusiasm. In the second group, many seemed to regret the amount of time they spent on the paper. Others in this group felt that the project belonged in the English department. The third group listed minor objections. Some felt that ten or fifteen references would have been sufficient. Others again wanted discussions of the topics in the quiz sections.

As a whole it was felt that the students' opinions were not adverse to this type of term

paper. If anything could be learned from the objections, it would be that greater care must be taken in presenting the project, that is, in pointing out exactly what is wanted, why, and how. The objections and difficulties of some of the students indicated lack of mastery of some of the elements commonly supposed to have been presented by secondary schools. This is not uncommon in many colleges and does not alter the fact that the responsibility of the college instructor is more adequately discharged when such students are given assistance.

"Order Is Heaven's First Law"

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"Order is heaven's first law," is an epigram that may be connected with religious teaching, yet the importance of order as a first law is obvious in many situations that are not considered religious. A brief, crisp statement, however, often has value as a core around which to organize a body of details. Hence, certain present-day implications of orderly arrangement might be more meaningfully held together if woven around a common epigrammatic statement, than if left with less venerable anchorage.

The manner or the age at which one first becomes aware of order, or the stage in human evolution when it first appeared as a culture trait, may be none too clear. With respect to the individual, however, a child who cannot yet walk may recognize a pattern in a rug over which he creeps, and may try to trace the pattern with his hand. He soon learns that round objects can be rolled and belong to a different order from square objects. A young child playing on a beach will pick up bright pebbles. When he puts them in a pile apart from other pebbles, he differentiates two orders or classes on the basis of light reflection—bright and dull. He may even be attracted at one moment by blue pebbles and at another moment by red pebbles, or shapes may be a basis of differentiation. He may also lay the stones down in such a way as to alternate those of differing colors or shapes. Certainly this pro-

cedure will be fumbling and haphazard unless someone guides him, but in fumbling he tries the stones in different relationships. Thus he is ordering or arranging them according to patterns. If he feels satisfied with his achievement he may call others to admire the results.

What has been said regarding stones may of course relate to shells, or may extend to plants, to people or to other aspects of the environment. The child creeping about on the rug was merely following a pattern—possibly only tracing lines without even being aware that the lines described an orderly arrangement. The child with the bright stones, however, was creating his pattern, his basis of differentiation—a higher level of activity than mere recognition of a pattern already laid out. It is important here that the child felt satisfaction, success, mastery. In much adult experience orderly arrangement plays a role similar to that noted in the reactions of the child.

Habit is an orderly performance of specific activities—those made habitual through frequent repetition. When the individual movements of a complex act are frequently made in the same order, less effort is required than would be needed to perform the act in a different way each time. Thus physical habits economize effort.

Habit, however, is the functioning of our organisms in relation to something—usually

some thing outside the body. Table manners as an approved set of eating habits will illustrate. In most American homes table manners cannot function in the absence of chairs, dishes, knives, water tumblers, salt shakers, etc. The same applies to habits of dress in relation to the kind or amount of clothing worn—varying with sex, climate and local custom. Habits regarding travel are similarly linked to available transportation facilities; certainly, one who travels by burro has different habits of mounting, posture or movement than one who travels by bicycle, automobile, train, boat or airplane.

In general, then, what has been said about habit as a reflection of orderliness, can be thought of as indicating an orderly sequence of responses to certain aspects of the environment which exist in a particular order or arrangement. The applications of the principle are many and obvious. Passing reference to a few additional examples, however, may be helpful. The importance of order in a household is proverbial, especially if there are many objects in it. Orderliness in dress is essential to attractiveness. Orderliness in financial matters is essential to sound credit. Order regarding meals, exercise and sleep are important in relation to health and the physical rhythms of the organism. In any modern vocation in which one works in relationship to others, all persons must work on an orderly basis so that each knows what to expect of others.

Much is said about law and order in social relationships. Orderliness in a community thus means that there are accepted ways of carrying on the various relationships in which human beings engage; and, in a democracy, law usually means that some duly chosen representatives have prescribed what shall be the accepted ways regarding the most important relationships—or forbidden unaccepted ways. Orderliness in social relationships enables one to feel that he can walk down the street without being shot at. When individuals cannot thus feel secure and do not know what to expect, there is confusion. Chaos is the opposite of order, it is not merely a different system of order from that to which one has become accustomed. Individuals and civilization can adjust from one system of order to another, but neither can adjust to chaos as a lasting condition.

Much of what has been said about order as related to physical habit and as related to law and custom, also applies to one's mental processes. The classification of items of experience is an aspect of thinking—setting up categories to which general labels are attached, so that in thinking one deals with general characteristics of entire categories without bothering about irrelevant details of specific items. Thus one can think of age groups in the population, as in relation to old-age security, without having to think of sex, race, religion, nativity, literacy or state of health—each of which characteristics relates to any one person who might be picked out. Likewise, temperature can be thought of without thinking of debates, the sun, coal strikes, blast furnaces or public-utility rates.

Classification is a process of ordering phenomena according to some one characteristic which is chosen to label the category. In systematic or scientific thinking, the process of dealing with orderly arranged data is carried further than in lay experience. The sequence of impressions as one experiences them reflects very little order—our experiences regarding color, taste, finance, speed, etc., are greatly mixed up in time and space. However, by grouping one's experiences into categories, one can deal with them systematically. Of course the capacity to deal systematically with experience varies. Persons who have little of this capacity cannot stick to the subject in a discussion or analysis. Science is thus an extension of more primitive ways of organizing experience and of stating conclusions. One should not suppose that primitive man did not think about his experiences, but rather that his observations were inaccurate, spotted and insufficient in extent for developing perspective. Hence he did not evaluate and reconstruct his conclusions as often as the modern world does in *some spheres* of its cultural development. His mind had relatively little practice in orderly arranging and rearranging experience.

Thus, it seems as natural to order and classify experience as to have experience—whether referring to children or others. Perhaps it would be impossible completely to prevent a normal person from ordering his experiences.

The human organism seems to crave order, at least up to a certain point—to feel more satisfied when objects and experiences are arranged according to a pattern, whether it is the child with his pebbles on the beach or the scientist with his data in the laboratory. Nevertheless one should remember that orderliness is only a means—to aid in doing other things. When one makes an end of orderliness in regard to dress, household or other matters, he becomes a fanatic—annoys others, and fails to get the important things done for which orderliness might be an aid.

It is impossible to know the extent to which Alexander Pope, in the early eighteenth century, sensed the scope of application of his expression "Order is heaven's first law," but it seems reasonable to conclude that he thought of order as being of extensive human concern. As the amount of knowledge increases and successive generations are confronted with the

need of sensing its implications, one might expect that the role of order and system in human experience will increase in importance. This increase will obviously be a projection on what has existed since primitive days. Since an epigram such as that of Pope is widely known and uttered, it might afford an apt symbol into which added meaning can be poured, as the significance and ramifications of order in human experience increase. To repeat a truism: fragmentary experiences which are organized around a core are easy to remember, fragments which are not so organized are easily lost. The core might be old and revamped or newly created.

It should be easy to see the implications for educational practice of the foregoing comments, which apply not only to order, but also to other fundamental social concepts the pith of which has been crisply stated and is widely heralded.

The Recorder in the Social Studies Classroom

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Much has been written on the use of radio, films, and recordings in the classroom, but the use of recording apparatus as a part of regular classroom work, as an aid for more effective pupil learning, has only been partially explored. In 1940 William J. Dusel stated: "Not only were previous studies on the value of the magnetic tape recorder non-existent, but scientific studies on the older and widely used disc recorder were extremely scarce."¹ He then reports the findings of three inconclusive studies and finishes with these words: "As for the other studies on the value of voice recording in education, they have contributed little to the background of this study. . . . They give no open-minded and comprehensive description of

uses and results."² An examination of the *Education Index* and of library catalogues reveals one study since 1940 which explores the use of the recorder in a class in dramatics;³ the remainder are limited to those in the field of speech, especially speech correction work. This paper, then, is exploratory and opens another phase of methodology to be used by the classroom teacher.

In the past, recording equipment and its use has been limited for several reasons: (1) Original costs were high and acetate records were expensive when used in quantity; (2) good equipment was heavy and was placed in a fixed position, not to be transported from room to

¹ William John Dusel, "Uses of the Magnetic Tape Recorder in Classroom Teaching at the Secondary Level" (M.A. Thesis, Stanford University, 1940) p. 6.

² *Ibid.*, p. 8.

³ Helen L. Wirt, "Use of the Voice Recorder in the Classroom," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVII (December, 1942), 488-490.

room; (3) few teachers thought of the educational possibility where machines were available; and (4) time spent in planning and experimentation was demanded of the person who desired to make recording worthwhile. In other words, it was, and still remains, a challenge—a new frontier.

Since the invention of the phonograph in 1877, scientific developments have greatly modified this instrument, and its present forms are widely in use throughout the industrial world. Advances in design and engineering skill have resulted in the development and commercial production of the magnetic wire recorder. This first appeared in 1937 and was technically improved by the army and navy during the war. The wire recorder is lightweight and portable, and therefore can be transferred from one area to another without affecting its mechanism. The availability now of the wire recorder makes it possible to maintain the natural day to day situation, as the class remains in the regular classroom.

Many recordings, of course, have been made of rehearsed programs, perhaps a play or a band program recorded and later reproduced as program material. Where schools have been more ambitious, programs using student talent have been recorded and then later released by local radio stations as part of the public relations program. These are the more orthodox ways and somewhat beyond the scope of the classroom teacher.

The writer has had interesting experiences with methods of using a wire recording machine. These are described here as they were developed as part of regular classroom procedures.

1. One of the units studied by members of the Current Problems class was that of "Labor and Management." Toward the end of the five-week period devoted to this topic, questions of evaluation arose. Did members of the class possess adequate information? If not, did they know where to find it in a short period of time? Did each pupil respect the opinion of the other? Was each capable of speaking intelligently in discussions at school, at home, with other groups? Was each critical of his own expressed ideas? The group decided to use a recording technique presented by the instructor.

The controversial question of governmental regulation of labor unions was selected by the class. Three days were spent in further reading and discussion of the problem. On the fourth day a panel of five members, a chairman, two negative and two affirmative speakers, were chosen by the class. On the fifth day, the recording was made during the class hour. Other students prepared questions on problems that were important to the theme.

The following day, the recording on wire was "played back." What was the class reaction?

- (1) Each pupil was interested in hearing his own voice.
- (2) Each pupil was very critical of his own part in the performance.
- (3) The class as a whole pointed out the shortcomings and success of the project.
- (4) A point was scored on "how much talk was made," and on how shallow the understanding was in certain phases of the question.
- (5) Areas of greatest accomplishment by individuals and the group were identified.
- (6) Cooperation, work, and morale throughout the entire program were excellent.

2. Later, another method was used in the same class with an added objective. This was to have all members participate more fully. For three weeks, various aspects of the problem of "World Security" were attacked. At the end of the time, the class identified about twenty significant problems. They were told that the examination of this section of the work would be oral, and they were directed to continue reading in these areas for two additional days. Individual aid was given, and where problems were common to the group, class discussions were held. On the third day, at the opening of the period, a slip, on which was written one of the problems, was drawn at random by each member of the class. Five minutes was given for the pupil to assemble and organize his information. Recording then began with each person talking for from four to eight minutes.

The following day, the class discussed areas of expected growth from the study of this material. These points were summarized and the students were instructed to grade one another's work. The recording was then played with class

discussion following. A summary of strengths and weaknesses, as revealed through the recording, was made. Each student was then given a chance further to explain his aspect of the problem. Each student was graded by the rest of the class and received the grade that emerged as the composite result. Class reaction was similar to the six points enumerated above.

3. A unit in a United States history class, "Domestic Progress, 1898-1933," was developed by having members of the class select topics and prepare reports. This was in addition to certain other class assignments. As the reports began, the class was told that it would be held accountable for significant material in all of the reports, plus other assigned reading. After all reports had been given, one additional day was spent in reviewing the principal items. The students were directed to submit five questions each on this material. Two students were then selected to aid the teacher in editing the material. The following day a "quiz program," with a student chairman, was held and the entire proceedings were recorded. The chairman performed well and all pupils participated, not only those who ordinarily led the class discussion.

The following day the recording was "played back." Results seemed to be as follows:

- (1) Each member enjoyed listening to his recorded voice.
- (2) Each student had been motivated in preparing for the quiz because he knew others would hear the results.
- (3) Although the program was not smoothly finished, the class enjoyed the procedure.
- (4) The idea of hearing oneself "think out loud" impressed the pupils.
- (5) Pupils were particularly critical of their own reactions.

The three techniques described have also been tried successfully with the use of the fixed recorder and acetate records. The wire recorder has also been utilized in the social studies classes in "pointing" the group toward a controversial question of the day, such as the United States loan to Greece. "Ditto copies" of discussion questions were distributed to the class after several days had been spent in exploring the problem. Discussion was then begun, either through a panel, or by having the

instructor or a student act as a chairman of the class. The recorder was then turned on and the opinions of the pupils placed on wire.

The "play back" was begun as soon as possible and never later than the following day. The following points have been partially substantiated:

- (1) Students become more careful in their habits of speech.
- (2) Pupils carefully balance opinions before speaking for the record.
- (3) Class members become more critical of themselves and each other in regard to their statements.
- (4) There was some evidence to show that a few students, beyond the average expectancy, did extra reading and made additional inquiries because of lack of information as shown by the recordings.
- (5) The procedure motivated the class to better preparation.
- (6) The skills of thinking and organization of thought were affected.

It is true that the spontaneous classroom discussions described are not as pleasant to listen to as are prepared professional programs, but the gain made by reaching the student in his natural behavior is more than an offsetting advantage. The pupils use no notes; the work is achieved through every-day conversations.

The machine can be used to present programs of a valuable nature. For instance certain problems aired on the radio program, "Town Meeting of the Air," logically supplemented the work that was being studied. Rather than trust to chance that students listened at home, the programs were brought into the classroom by transcription. There are also available prepared manuscripts illustrating certain historic events in United States history. These can be transcribed by class members and used in the classroom.

This process of recording is inexpensive, for the recorded program can be removed from the magnetic wire merely by recording a new program over that same wire. By having available a few extra spools of wire, which are inexpensive, a program need be saved only for the period of its usefulness. The expense of buying acetate records and their storage is avoided.

When using techniques of instruction that involve recordings, classes ranging from thirty to thirty-five pupils can be handled satisfactorily. There is the need, however, for some method of seating in the classroom that allows flexibility, which is another reason why the old-fashioned fixed desks must go. Successful procedure of this type also means the exchange from a formal method of classroom teaching to informal pupil participation, a seminar type of discussion and study.

To date, the author has found that enthusiasm remains high when recordings are used.

So long as its use is carefully planned, recording will remain a valuable teaching device. It is another method to be utilized by the master teacher, and to be added to his list of successful classroom procedures. The teacher must work, plan, and pass his enthusiasm to the pupils. But such is the "life blood" of our profession and such planning, thinking, and successful execution pays dividends, which we can trace in the growth of our pupils. The recording technique meets this requirement, for the pupils have said: "That was interesting. When are we going to try it again?"

Unesco and International Education

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In the palace where once the chief musician of Louis XIV composed airs to delight the nobility of Versailles, a group of 82 individuals from the far-flung corners of the world have been working to build in the minds of men the defenses of peace. The Seminar's activities and the reports which Unesco will issue in the near future will be of real interest to all teachers of social studies, in particular.

One of the most successful and effective accomplishments of Unesco during 1947 appears to have been the Seminar in Education for International Understanding held at Sèvres. Gilbert Murray of Oxford University visited the Seminar and termed it "a significant pioneer enterprise in educational understanding." The Director-General of Unesco has referred to it as one of the most promising phases of Unesco's program for the promotion of international understanding.

The Seminar opened July 21 and continued through August 30, 1947. Thirty-one countries sent the total of 82 participants to the Seminar, including leading teachers, administrative officials, educational writers and editors. Six individuals were sent from the United States. Member states of Unesco (there are now 31, Liberia having joined recently) were requested earlier in the year to select

from one to five participants of high ability and who were in key positions in order to report to their educational colleagues on what was done at the Seminar. Unesco provided free tuition, board and lodging for the selected members. Either the member states or the individuals paid their own travel and personal expenses.

The Seminar was located on the outskirts of Paris, at Sèvres, about 20 minutes from Paris by car, in a building which was once the palace of the chief musician of Louis XIV. One approached the front of the four-story building, set graciously on a hillside, through a lane of beautiful trees and reached a great iron gate. A little courtyard led to the main entrance, where one found porters on duty. A flight of stairs took one to the main floor where there were dining rooms, many classrooms, and a library. The members of the Seminar lived in the same building, which was loaned to Unesco by the French government. Normally, the converted palace is an experimental lycée or upper school and an International Center maintained by the French for visiting groups of foreign students.

Informality was the keynote of the Seminar. The participants were organized in small groups or committees, each of which carried out a

particular study or project under the leadership of a competent staff member. Separate groups prepared bibliographies on teaching for international understanding, drafted statements of basic principles, viewed and evaluated educational films, prepared suggestions for teachers of modern languages and of social sciences, studied interchange of pupils, educational psychology and the growth of adolescents. It is expected that Unesco will publish some of the studies made by the Seminar and distribute them to the national commissions or cooperating bodies of member states.

The staff of the Seminar was outstanding. The Director was Dr. Howard E. Wilson, formerly Professor of Education at Harvard University and now Associate Director of the Division of Education of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Assistant Director was Jean Guiton, formerly of the Institute of Intellectual Cooperation, now of the Unesco Secretariat. Heads of the two sections, one of which was devoted to the study of international relations and plans and procedures for improving instruction about international relations, and the other to how the cultural environment in different countries influences individual growth during adolescence, were Jacques Lambert, Professor of Comparative Law at the University of Lyon, and Dr. Robert J. Havighurst, Professor of Psychology at the University of Chicago. Some of the other staff members included Leonard S. Kenworthy, American educator from the Unesco Secretariat, Julio de la Fuente, anthropologist and Assistant Director of the Department of Indian Affairs of Mexico, Chou Ling, member of the permanent delegation of China to Unesco, and Hilda Taba, psychologist on the staff of the American Council on Education.

The Seminar was also visited by many distinguished scholars who lectured to the members on various subjects. A few were Margaret Mead, of the American Museum of Natural History, Stephen Spender, British poet, John C. H. Wu, Chinese Minister to Italy, William G. Carr, of the National Education Association, and Haakon Bugge-Mahrt, of the Norwegian Embassy in Paris.

Dr. Wilson stated during the progress of the Seminar that among the participants "barriers of language and cultural differences are being overcome in a joint effort at planning practical programs of education for international cooperation." He believes that the Seminar served two main purposes; increased understanding and respect for one another among the members of the Seminar, and the production of special materials useful for their educational colleagues all over the globe.

It is unreasonable to expect real miracles from Unesco at this date. Many of Unesco's projects, such as the Fundamental Education program, will take decades to achieve, even in part. However, it is reasonable to expect some immediate practical accomplishments by Unesco, other than the formulation of basic principles and globe-girdling programs. If these achievements are not forthcoming, Unesco's wider, long-term programs so essential for the preservation of peace and security in the world will be handicapped by lack of confidence on the part of a rather practical-minded public.

Such projects as the Seminar will do a great deal to make Unesco the "possession of the peoples of the world," to supply teachers with practical suggestions for international education, and to reassure many that Unesco is not "just a candle blowing in the wind" but a beaconfire of hope and promise for all humanity.

World History: A Survey

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In the field of social studies, world history has passed the probationary period and has become established in the curriculum with decided dignity. Judging from the continued emphasis on the global concept of world affairs and the publishers' shrewd study of the trend, namely their readiness to print expensively-prepared textbooks, world history is here to stay. During recent years this course has undergone considerable revision in keeping with changes in methodology and as a means to present an understandable interpretation of our modern world to secondary school students. World history today implies precisely what the title indicates; it is not concerned with European backgrounds alone. A survey of this subject's rise and development will provide insight as to its present status, difficulties and proposals for improvement.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The curriculum of the first high school in Boston contained a course which may be considered a precursor of current courses in world history. This one-year abridgment of "ancient and modern history and chronology,"¹ placed in the sophomore year even then, served as the prototype history course providing a survey of our European backgrounds until nearly the end of the century. Members of the 1893 Committee of Ten reproved the course, which was followed five years later by a similar reprimand from the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association. The National Education Association, which sponsored the Committee of Ten, apparently abandoned its interest in the social studies for nearly two decades. During that period "general history," the name most frequently used for this survey course, was withdrawn from the secondary school curriculum because of the committees' censure.

The National Education Association, in 1912, created the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, in which a social studies committee made some recommendations

that had great influence on the curriculum. Their 1916 report advocated a two-year course in European history but endorsed a revival of the year's course with the suggested title, "A Study of Nations." Four years later general history gave evidence of its presence in the secondary school but now more often was entitled "world history."

It appears that the 1924 report of the American Historical Association's sponsored "History Inquiry" of the previous year gave world history real sanction. This investigation noted that ancient and English history were declining in popularity while "the one-year world history . . . popular in some quarters . . . does not seem . . . to have made much headway."²

Obviously college preparatory standards, prevalent in schools for more than a century, helped preserve ancient history, and sometimes the more ancient the history, the better! Medieval history, and modern history or English history, as second year electives were retained for the same purpose. Even many non-college preparatory courses required a condensed version of all three sometimes called general, and later, world history. But the U. S. Bureau of Education in 1928 reported that the course was demanded by only approximately six per cent of the total high school enrollment.³

In a survey conducted by Gray of the North Central Association, none of the high schools offered world or general history in 1916.⁴ But within six years 39 out of 475 schools reported a course in world history. By 1930 he found that more than half the schools offered the subject. A year later he reported that thirty-five states and two territories (one being the Philippine Islands) offered world history. The mid-western states indicated the strongest inclination in this direction. Adding further light to the growth of the subject Gray discovered that

² Edgar B. Wesley, *Teaching the Social Studies* (New York: Heath and Company, 1942), pp. 217-219.

³ U. S. Bureau of Education *Bulletin* No. 35 (1929).

¹ Arthur D. Gray, "The One-year Course in World History," *Historical Outlook* (December, 1932), 407-409.

⁴ Arthur D. Gray, "The One-year Course in World History," *Historical Outlook*, (December, 1932), 408.

36 per cent of 237 cities in all sections of the country sampled offered world history. Using 1928 as a base date, world history was then struggling for recognition in the social studies, since it was being challenged for position by similar type courses, but has developed with considerable rapidity during the past two decades.

Aside from recognition of world history by the "History Inquiry," where first official announcement of the title was supposedly made, King offers some other reasons for return of the condensed European history course.⁵

1. Interest in the new social sciences after World War I with emphasis on citizenship training.

2. Interest in a new history to eliminate much of the encyclopedic, memory type material.

REASONS FOR TEACHING WORLD HISTORY

Judging from the variety of materials written on the supposed outcomes in the study of world history, the most frequent commentary encountered is:

1. To develop an "attitude of worldmindedness."⁶

Selecting results to be gained from study of the subject, the following are offered:

2. To develop a vocabulary of significant social, political, and economic terms which will directly aid intelligent reading about current world affairs.⁷

3. To develop a truer understanding and appreciation of democracy by placing it in its historical perspective.⁸

Both of these objectives bear out Weeden's contention that world history, as it is being taught today, is "lacking in civic purposes."⁹

Gibbons adds quixotically another outcome to be gained by effective teaching:

⁵ A. K. King, "Is World History as Successful as We Thought It Would Be?" *High School Journal* (May, 1937), 182-187.

⁶ Alice N. Gibbons, "World History in the Social Studies Program," National Council for the Social Studies, *Yearbook* (1936), pp. 50-67.

⁷ Clarice J. Weeden, "Needed Changes in the Course in World History," *SOCIAL STUDIES* (October, 1942), 249-255.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 255.

⁹ Clarice J. Weeden, "Is World History Being Taught for Civic Purposes?" *Social Studies* (May, 1942), 200-206.

4. To develop the habit of scientific thinking.¹⁰

In making his plea for world history that would "present as one picture the development all over the Old World," Hodgson uses unusual terminology:

5. To break down ethnocentrism.¹¹

He goes further to suggest why world history persists in being chiefly European.

1. A snobbish misunderstanding indicative of European exclusiveness.

2. A desire to concentrate study on dominating world powers putting the dominated powers, like China, in a subservient position in textbooks.

3. A natural desire to emphasize our own European backgrounds and their influence on our nation's history.

GRADE PLACEMENT AND SUBJECT MATTER CONTENT

From the days of our early high schools, which helped to establish current curricular patterns, world history, or general history as it was known then, has been offered essentially in the secondary school. Grade placement then and now is found prevalently in the sophomore year. Barnard found that growth of the junior high school in the late twenties had pushed ancient history upgrade because there was too much other work for the students to undertake.¹² This offers additional evidence of favoritism for placement of world history in the tenth grade since it had absorbed both ancient and medieval history in the year's course. In some states (e.g., New Jersey) where a two-year course in American history and problems of democracy is required by law and where the first year of the subject is given in the sophomore year, there is a tendency to downgrade world history. Offering world history in the freshman year is necessary to effect adjustment of programs of study in the upper grades.

Barnard quotes an excerpt from a speech made twenty years ago at the Schoolmen's Week conference at the University of Pennsyl-

¹⁰ Alice N. Gibbons, "World History in the Social Studies Program," National Council for the Social Studies *Yearbook* (1936), p. 52.

¹¹ Marshall Hodgson, "World History and World Outlook," *Social Studies* (November, 1944), 297-301.

¹² J. Lynn Barnard, "Development of the World History Course," *Historical Outlook* (December, 1929), 395-396.

vania which succinctly describes course content of general history to 1910:

It was mostly conglomerate, scrapbook history, and merely tied together dynastic and ecclesiastical occurrences. It was predominantly political, with a few comments on cultural developments and religious clashes. It stressed wars and schisms; pictured kings and queens, feudal lords and bishops, popes and emperors; emphasized dates and names . . . and made history largely an exercise of the memory. Geographically it was confined to the Mediterranean basin and to Western Europe, with brief allusions to the New World, Asia and Africa.

Throughout investigations made in writings on the subject, there appears persistent criticism of course content. Examination of recent textbooks provides evidence that real effort has been made to get away from the traditional presentation of world history as a retitled course in ancient, medieval, and modern European history compressed into a one-year course. Customarily, world history begins with prehistoric times, dwells on early historic years in Egypt and Mesopotamia, traces the rise and fall of Greece and Rome, and on through medieval, renaissance, and modern Europe. Little attention is given to the rest of the world. Once class activity is focused on the Fertile Crescent, thoughts and interests become channeled on a westward movement with little turning back. The known world encompasses only the realms of Ptolemy, Alexander and Caesar. Fenn expresses himself on this point by asking for a "de-occidentalization of school and popular history for the development of a broader view of civilization."¹³

From a specific point of view some excerpts from Weeden's study made in May, 1942, concerning the time spent in a world history course, offer an interesting tabulation:

1. 44 per cent of the time given to ancient times and the Middle Ages
2. 9.3 per cent of the time given to "The World Today" (since 1920)
3. 9.3 per cent of the time given to civilization of ancient Greece

4. 8.9 per cent of the time given to Roman civilization
5. 9.4 per cent of the time given to medieval period
6. 4.6 per cent of the time given to increasing international activity in the nineteenth century
7. .2 per cent of the time given to Latin America and the far East

In suggesting a revision of course content, published in October, 1942, Weeden selects, for their civic value, certain areas in world history as follows:

1. Athenian democracy
2. Roman government and law
3. Growth of nationalism
4. Beginnings of English democracy
5. Reform by revolution
6. Progress toward reform in the 19th century
7. Background of World War I
8. Failure to establish permanent peace
9. Postwar trends in government and international relations

While that outline is still reminiscent of traditional subject matter alignment, Wilber suggests "emphasis on new and meaningful problems around which course content may be utilized."¹⁴ Of the fourteen areas recommended the first is a "survey of ancient and medieval times." Five other topic headings or "areas of emphasis" are as follows:

1. Developing principles of democratic government
2. How to deal with propaganda and advertising
3. Historical persons and places frequently referred to in daily life
4. Determining the influence of governmental leaders in the world today
5. Establishment and development of your religion

THE TEXTBOOK PROBLEM

Like course content, textbooks have adhered to the customary subject matter approach. Undoubtedly the "printed page is still the foremost means of presenting history. The average teacher cannot get along without a textbook

¹³ Henry C. Fenn, "World History for This International Age," *Historical Outlook* (April, 1933), 193-200.

¹⁴ Leon A. Wilber, "Adapting a World History Course to a New Curricular Proposal," *Social Education* (December, 1939), 628-630.

and neither can the students."¹⁵ Landsittel goes on to indicate why the textbook is a problem barrier to learning:

1. Abstract terminology used in texts is not based on concrete experiences of the average student.

2. Condensation of an all-inclusive world history to a dehydrated core of history is fatal to real intelligibility.

Commentaries on the textbook problem frequently indicate that the fault does not fall entirely in the hands of the writers. While there has been evidence of "chaotic content and poor coordination of materials" according to Gray, writers reflect necessarily the market demand despite disagreement of objectives.¹⁶ He points out that from 1920-1930 major attention in textbooks was given to war and politics but that a gradual shift to the modern period was then in evidence.

In Weeden's report made more than a decade later, three popular textbooks in the field were selected to study their subject matter allotment. Excerpts from it are presented here:¹⁷

Textbook	Introduction	Ancient Times	Medieval Times	Modern Times
A	5.95%	34.68%	18.39%	40.98%
B	1.57	5.62	35.92	56.89
C	2.00	22.68	20.80	54.52

CLASSROOM METHOD

As one of the social studies, methodology in world history would naturally be closely akin to that used in other subjects in the field. Traditional textbook, memoriter type teaching has prevailed in world history as in subjects even outside the social studies field. Aside from change of emphasis suggested in the course content revisions, some newer techniques in teaching reported are as follows:

1. The Hatch method: conduct a rapid survey of chief developments in modern history. Then let the class decide upon certain contemporary problems they would like to investigate in light of their historical background.¹⁸

2. Double period class of English and world

history. "This procedure made literature more understandable because an historical interpretation of conflicts was at hand. Students were kept current in history and English work. This helped to improve reading skills."¹⁹

3. Double period class of world history and world geography. This procedure "makes use of geography as an integral part of . . . each area . . . to show the influence of terrain, climate and neighbors upon the development of any people."²⁰

PRESENT STATUS AND ADJUSTMENT FOR THE FUTURE

In sifting through the writings on world history over the past 20 years, there has been a deficiency noted which recurs regularly. While this shortcoming was made evident in earlier comments, there appears currently to be a real effort to delete it. This need can be briefly stated as a lack of agreement on objectives for the course. As a more explicit philosophy of the subject emerges, greater clarity in course aims have become established. While direction of the subject in the secondary school has undergone considerable revamping in line with existing principles of education, there is still need for careful delineation of purposes and organization.

A frequently printed criticism is that centered on the textbooks used. As textbook writers became obligated to present a global viewpoint rather than an abridged Europeanized version of world civilization, the text took on a new format. In order to keep the book within reason considerable material, heretofore regarded as essential, was necessarily deleted but with Oriental and Pan-American materials replacing the parts expunged. As a result of such market demand, textbooks frequently attain "a skeletal framework of fact with some enriching accounts which reduce the book to a syllabus."²¹

This newer type of writing is in keeping with current technique in historiography according to Kollman. As he expresses it: "the microscopic approach is being replaced by an

¹⁵ Adapted from F. C. Landsittel, "How General and Vague are World Histories?" *Social Education* (November, 1939), 547-550.

¹⁶ Arthur D. Gray, "The One-year Course In World History," *Historical Outlook* (December, 1932), 408.

¹⁷ Clarice J. Weeden, "Is World History Being Taught for Civic Purposes?" *Social Studies* (May, 1942), 205.

¹⁸ Helen S. Brown, "A Study of Methods Used in the Teaching of History in Secondary Schools," *Historical Outlook* (April, 1929), 185.

¹⁹ Frances Mains, "World History and English," *English Journal* (December, 1945), 552-554.

²⁰ Lester B. Rogers et al., *Story of Nations* (New York: Henry Holt and Company), p. v.

²¹ F. C. Landsittel, "How General and Vague Are World Histories?" *Social Education* (November, 1939), p. 548.

attempt at synthesis and broad interpretation."²² This bears out the global viewpoint in world history, which should endeavor to stress, as he continues, the "interrelationship and interdependence of nation states and cultures."

In examining the subject matter content of four world history textbooks published during the war and more recently, the following evidence is presented:

Subject matter area:	Textbook			
	A	B	C	D
Prehistoric and early civilizations	12.3	6.9	12.4	10.7
Greece and Rome	11.4	9.4	16.9	9.0
World's Religions	4.7	1.3	1.8	8.9
Middle Ages through the Reformation	9.2	13.7	18.5	16.8
Emergence of European Nations (including the French Revolution and Imperialism)	30.0	32.8	35.2	19.2
The Orient	7.2	3.1	1.8	4.6
Latin-America	5.8	2.2	.003	.008
World War I to date	6.9	3.2	12.2	21.6

While textbook writers strain themselves to be all-inclusive in their content, it would appear that they are at odds with those who favor the technique of stressing problem areas. Such comprehensive textbooks have a tendency to condition methodology to a "gallop through 6000 years in one."²³ Currently published world histories still indicate an inclination "to introduce a full picture of human society in fleeting moments," or as King continues to express it: "to run a breathless race with time."²⁴

In addition to the problem of time and materials, criticism is leveled at textbook writers for not being duly considerate of the learning process of average tenth grade students. These "early adolescents are unable to cope with complex social and political concepts."²⁵ In the teaching process, Featherstone makes a plea that "social education procedures are needed"

for consideration of the slow learner. He says that "method should be adapted to concrete, practical, reality."²⁶

By way of indicating a more valuable approach to a study of world history, Habberton suggests the following program:²⁷

1. Present materials from the prehistoric period through the Renaissance in storybook fashion simply for background.
2. Place emphasis on the modern period.
3. Use current publications to encourage habits of systematic reading.
4. Revise teaching methods, placing less emphasis on oral quizzing and more on reading and studying as the basis for discussion.

To compromise the interests of the writers leaning towards the all-inclusive chronological method with those who wish to stress selective problem areas as an approach to world history, a revision in textbook preparation for the subject is to be expected. Perhaps as comfort to those who favor the latter type of adaptation, there is evidence, according to Ellis, that students retain the larger, fundamental facts and ideas, even where intensive drilling is not used in teaching.²⁸

From what has been written and practiced in world history, the subject can serve as an effective background course for American history. But as Gibbons says: "This does not mean that there should be . . . a one-year course that simply has the aim . . . of providing a superficial factual background for the study of American history. Worldmindedness will never be acquired that way."²⁹ She goes on to imply that while world history is necessary for an American history background, it should be presented so that the "most fundamental ideas, issues, and trends in world history are presented." This not only provides "better balance in the history program" but serves as a means in our "striving to acquire a better understanding of society that will lead to making better adaptations for finer living."

²² W. B. Featherstone, "Social Education of the Non-Academic," *Social Education* (March, 1939), 163-168.

²⁷ William Habberton, "What Shall We Do with World History?" *Social Education* (January, 1946), 17-19.

²⁸ Elmer Ellis, "The Permanence of Learning in World History," *Social Studies* (March, 1934), 133-136.

²⁹ Alice N. Gibbons, "World History in the Social Studies Program," National Council for the Social Studies Yearbook (1936), p. 67.

²² Eric C. Kollman, "The 'New World History'" *Social Education* (December, 1943) 342-346.

²³ Clarice J. Weeden, "Is World History Being Taught for Civic Purposes?" *Social Studies* (May, 1942), 204.

²⁴ A. K. King, "Is World History as Successful as We Thought It Would Be?" *High School Journal* (May, 1937), 182-187.

²⁵ *Ibid.*, 187.

Animating with the Local Community

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Webster's dictionary defines the verb "to animate" as meaning "to impart life to, to inspire with energy, to quicken into action." Certainly we have all been faced—and we shall continue to be faced—with classes that are badly in need of being animated!

It is the thesis of this article that one of the most effective animators of a class can be an analysis of some aspect of the local community. There is a very basic reason for the success of such a project. The psychology of the traditional classroom is exactly reversed; no longer is the teacher the authority who is trying more or less successfully to pour his superior knowledge into the minds of his pupils. Rather, the pupils themselves are the authorities, especially in communities to which the teacher has come from the outside; for it is the pupils who have lived there all their lives, whose parents have contributed to the building-up and to the traditions of that community, who themselves know, and have contacts with, the community's outstanding members. It is pleasantly surprising to discover how pupil vies with pupil and committee vies with committee to contribute pieces to the total picture of an aspect of their local area.

From experience, however, I have discovered that an indispensable prerequisite for such a class project is that there must be a tangible, meaningful end-goal toward which to work—one which kindles the creative imagination of the would-be researchers.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The first indication I had that an analysis of the local community was an effective animator came through personal experience. It was during my first year of teaching—in a New York State central school—that I discovered that the ninth-grade course of study called for an understanding by the pupils of the government of their township and of their county. Perhaps it was because of my college education in New York City that I knew little about the subject. What added to my

mental paralysis was the discovery that there was nothing available in print, which would explain the matter to me so that I, in turn, could explain it to my pupils. It was in sheer desperation, and without alternative, therefore, that the class and I ventured into the project of writing our own textbook on local government for the use of the on-coming eighth-graders.

As I recall now, the first thing we did was to build cooperatively a class list of the exact titles of each of the official positions in our town's government, together with the names of the people then holding the positions. Interviewing committees then brought back information as to how these officials obtained their jobs, the length of their terms of office, a statement of the duties and responsibilities of each office, and—where the answer could be obtained without directly questioning the person involved—the pay which they received from the taxpayers in return for their services to the community. As the bits of information were brought into class, the total picture gradually took shape so that we were able to represent the machinery of the town's government by means of a diagram.

The connecting link between town government and county government was found in our supervisor, for it was his duty to represent us on the county Board of Supervisors. We arranged with him to reserve seats for us in the gallery of the County Building's legislative chambers. After chartering a bus and getting the day off from school, we traveled the thirty miles to the "Big City" to see our county government in action.

The meeting of the Board of Supervisors could not have been better had it been rehearsed. Two of the supervisors got into such a heated argument that a third felt called upon to remind them of the "fine group of young Americans" in the gallery, who had come to see democracy at its best! After the meeting, our own supervisor took us on a behind-the-scenes

tour of the County Building, two highlights of which were the inspecting of an automatic check-writing machine and the meeting of the elderly judge, who permitted the youngsters to sit in the witness chair and the jury box of his courtroom. The judge talked to the pupils for several minutes on the importance of the judicial branch of all democratic governments.

When we got back to the classroom, we were able to complete the writing of our booklet, a copy of which was presented to each pupil as a memento of his participation in our class project on local government. It is my belief, however, that (at least in small communities) the first step in teaching local government might well be to garner all extant printed material on the subject (especially definitive treatments of it), lock it up in a closet, and then start all over again from scratch! It is the scurrying about the community for bits of information, the purposeful interviewing of people, the creative cooperating with a group toward the completion of a common project, the sense of satisfaction that comes from a tangible job well done—these are the educative experiences which are worth infinitely more to the developing talents of a child than his merely learning from a book a few facts about local government. The facts he will forget; the experience of contributing actively to a group project will be remembered because it enters into developing his personality.

A further step in the analysis of local government developed when I was in my second teaching position in a town with a population of 12,000. In conjunction with an adult public forum, the class sponsored a "Local Government Nite," open to the public and held in the high school auditorium. As our audience of nearly 300 entered the building, they were handed a mimeographed brochure prepared by the pupils in which were statements by each of the city's officials as to what he considered to be the functions and responsibilities of his office, together with a diagrammatic representation of the machinery of the city's government. Local citizens could not only see and hear their city officials on the platform, but by means of the diagram in their hands they could also see exactly where each official fitted into the total framework of the city's administration. The

pupils naturally took pride in their project designed to enlighten their elders.

LOCAL HISTORY

A second aspect of the local community which lends itself to analysis and survey is that of local history. In this connection, I believe that social studies teachers are in a unique position to make a real contribution to the communities in which they teach, if that contribution has not previously been made by others. The study and presentation of local history touches the pride of everyone in the community. It is a splendid experience for a class to feel that the ferreting-out of local lore from all available sources places it in the limelight. Old folk should be interviewed and their reminiscences should be recorded before they carry their memories of the local scene to the grave. Historic landmarks and buildings should be systematically photographed before they pass out of existence. As a memorable service to the community which it serves, the school might well publish such a compilation for local distribution, including the names of all the pupils who contributed to it.

A technique that I once used successfully with a low-ability class in American history was the compilation of material for a large double-columned loose-leaf notebook. The cover required the talents of two artistically inclined students, with help from the manual-training department, while entries in the two columns were made by a girl with truly exquisite penmanship. In one column were entered highlights in the development of the United States as a whole, and in the other column, appropriately placed entries showed how the development of the local community paralleled that of our nation. Entries such as the birth of a local industry suggested visits to one or another of the local factories. Such visits, in turn, suggested a study of the labor movement, of the causes of unemployment, and even of international trade. Local surveys can often be tied in with the more orthodox curriculum material, thus reflecting meaning and enthusiasm to the study of the latter.

SOCIOLOGICAL SURVEY

A third aspect of the local scene which lends itself to analysis—more successfully in the larger, more metropolitan community—is the

sociological. A statistical analysis of such things as national and racial origins, of deaths compared to births, of marriages compared to divorces, of doctors per thousand population—all lend themselves to pictorial representation. Personal knowledge or sleuthing may unearth such things as a Ukrainian Civic Center, an interracial choir, foreign language newspapers, or a German Turnverein. Pupils thus acquaint themselves with parts of the city and with elements of its society that are different from their own. Again, the photographers of the class can go into action, this time taking pictures of the worst slum area in contrast with the finest residence, or of the typical Negro laborer, Greek restaurateur or Irish policeman.

Years ago, Konrad Bercovici wrote a book entitled *Around the World in New York*, of which *Life* magazine recently published a

photographic counterpart. Youngsters rise to the creative appeal of searching for material for an "Around the World in Our Town" booklet. Obviously, the teacher's function is chiefly that of administrator, once the idea of such a project has been sold to the pupils and appropriate student committees set up.

SUMMARY

In conclusion, then, I contend from experience that a surprisingly effective animator for those classes where the curriculum permits is an analysis of one or another aspect of the local community. The Achilles heel of the social studies in secondary education has been, and still is, a too-predominant emphasis on the mere learning of facts. The community analysis and survey gives genuine promise of being a prime method of getting more "learning by doing" into the social studies.

The Appreciation of Age in Ancient Cultures

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Analysis of the values of age in the great ancient cultures is timely. Our culture has been neglecting and disparaging these values. The ideal state is that in which the values of age as well as those of youth are rightfully evaluated and utilized. We need both sets of value, the freshness of youth and the wisdom of age. But there has been a tendency in our culture to underestimate the value of years of experience with life. The war crisis forced the wide recognition and utilization of age. The most responsible positions were held by men who were well past middle life, Roosevelt, Churchill, Stalin, MacArthur, to mention only a few. Now that the war is over, the values of age must be critically analyzed and appraised in order that society will continue to appreciate and utilize them.

The aim of this article is to analyze the values and appreciation of age in the great ancient cultures, the belief being that the realization of them will increase the esteem and thereby

the utilization of these values in our own culture. The notion is that a general revaluation of the values of age would itself be uplifting and inspiring. Further, any general change in evaluation and attitude brings about a general change in practice. Therefore if the former could be brought about, specific ways and means of showing this change would automatically follow. Such a general change both in evaluation and practice is our aim.

Time is essential to the development of man's highest mental and personality values. The priceless values of experience, judgment, charity and forbearance, honesty of purpose and integrity, are formed slowly in human beings often not fully maturing until middle life is well past. The great thinker Kant said that "there is nothing really good but a good will." A good will is the essence of a good character. And it takes time to build character and experience to gain wisdom.

The values in which age excels are of supreme importance. Past failure to realize these facts has resulted in the disparagement and neglect of age. To the extent that values tend to be lost through such lack of appreciation our culture is threatened with impoverishment. The values of age are indispensable to the development and continuation of a high culture. Analysis of some of the great cultures of the past bears out the thesis that the most important values of man are those of age and that the ancients knew how to appreciate and utilize these values.

In many fields of endeavor the ancients achieved eminence. The best thinking that has come down to us, has come from the ancient Hindus, Greeks, Hebrews, and Chinese. The progress of civilization has not excelled the philosophy and religious literature of the Upanishads, Plato's Dialogues, the Hebrew Bible and the Chinese Classics. The wise men who wrote this literature esteemed the counsel of the aged. It was seriously believed that old age was the most valuable time of a person's life. Youth was, for the most part, valuable, not in terms of actuality, but only in those of possibilities and promise. We may be certain that as the leaders taught, so the people believed and acted. Every culture is the result of its philosophy, ideology, and religion.

The Hindus divided life into four periods. On arriving at the age of the fourth period, Man was relieved of all active duties, to give him leisure and solitude in which to meditate. It was to this group that the people looked for inspiration and insight into the deeper problems of life with which their religious literature is so admirably filled. In fact the Upanishads are so similar to the gospel of John that it is difficult to disbelieve that they were similarly inspired. Gandhi, when his religious character was being formed, read the gospels but said: "Why should I give up Hinduism? There is nothing in the Sermon of the Mount, Jesus' formula for blessedness, that is not also found in the Hindu Scriptures. Both are sublime."

Thus Hinduism is an example of an ancient culture, perhaps the most ancient, that reached a high degree of civilization. It produced an immortal spiritual literature and founded a religion that is not moribund even today, for it is producing such saintly characters as

Gandhi and the late Rabindranath Tagore. They testify to its vitality and excellence. The values of age played an important role in producing this culture. And in this high culture they were held in the greatest of appreciation.

The Greeks also, as everyone knows, produced a high culture. The Hindus divided life into four periods. Plato's ideal republic divided society into four classes: artisans, tradespeople, warriors, and what they called philosophers. The philosophers were to be carefully selected from every walk of life. The most promising of these were next in time chosen to enter the schools of higher learning. At each step of the way there was another selection of the fittest. Finally, at the age of 50 the final elimination was made. Those who were considered qualified to become the rulers of the state were chosen. The members of this group were called philosophers, the etymology of which is one who loves wisdom. The ideal state is one in which philosophers rule or in which all rulers are philosophers. They did no manual work, in order that they be free to devote all their higher gifts to the state. They were supported by the state, but in return they must rule the state—supposedly wisely. Thus in the Greek *ideal* commonwealth, the most important period of life *began* at 50!

One of the commandments in the Hebrew and Christian religion, as everyone knows, is, "Honor thy father and thy mother that thy days may be long upon the earth which the Lord thy God hath given thee." This precept was generally observed in Israel.

The earliest form of government of the ancient Hebrews, like many other cultures, was patriarchal, that is, the rule of the fathers. The extreme longevity of the patriarchs is legend. We say, "As old as Methuselah." But be it noted here that they were respected in their day. A goodly number of the strong characters in the Old Testament are usually conceived of as elderly. Sarah, busy about the tent; Abraham sitting in the door; Isaac blind and blessing Jacob; and Jacob referred to by Joseph: "Is the old man of whom you spake, your father, still alive?"

Moses' youth was important only as it was a preparation for his mission in age. The great sculptor, Michael Angelo, conceived of Moses

as an old man with flowing hair and beard, holding in his hand the tablets of the law. The Ten Commandments delivered to Moses are the precursor of Jesus' Sermon on the Mount. Moses' humanitarian laws, the gist of which is the Golden Rule, were advanced for his time. Their observance would be advanced for our own. He often reiterates the noble appeal, "Consider the widow, the fatherless, the orphan; Remember—you were strangers in the land of Egypt." He reaches the heights of sublimity in the exhortation, "Be holy," not for any remuneration or reward, but simply, "Be holy because I, the Lord your God, am holy." Moses was one of the great old men in history. Well may three great living religions, Mohammedanism, Hebraism and Christianity look to him as their founder.

Few characters in the Old Testament have such a hold on the popular imagination as has the old prophet Elijah. He moves across its pages a dynamic yet mysterious figure. Silence marks his entrance, and supernaturalism his exit. Yet had it not been for Elijah, civilization would have been immeasurably the poorer. Had it not been for him, the Hebrew religion might not have endured nor Christianity ever have been founded.

These are but a few of the great characters that might be mentioned from the Old Testament who made large contributions to civilization. Their "days were long upon the earth" and their wisdom was not gained from books or in the school, but was based upon the wide experience of their long lives. The Hebrews knew how to cherish and follow this wisdom.

The Chinese are criticized as erring on the side of overvaluing age. They worshipped their ancestors. The pattern of the past was looked to as the pattern for the present. They did not realize that life is not static but dynamic:

No single thing abides, but all things flow.

Fragment to fragment clings; the things thus grow

Until we know and name them. By degrees
They melt, and are no more the things we know.

No other one man in Chinese history has had such a wide influence as has Confucius. Confucius' ideal was an orderly state modeled after the orderly heavens; not so discerning as old Lucretius, without a telescope he saw

no progress in the heavens. Therefore, he formulated a static social order. Had he been able to see the countless numbers of spiral nebulae perhaps in the process of forming solar systems, his system might also have allowed for progress. As it was, he held that an ideal form of state once formulated could be perpetuated without change. His maxim was ever: "Look to the ancients; what did they say?"

Regard for the values of age helped to develop a high culture and preserved China, but the constant looking to the past is said to foster a reactionary, unprogressive form of civilization. China has not made the scientific and material advances that the Occidental nations have enjoyed; but if the seeds of life are the signs of vitality, China is a world force today while most of the great nations, whose contemporary she was, Babylon, Assyria, Egypt, Greece, are marked by crumbling walls and moldering ruins. If respect for personality and moral law is strength; if toleration of others and the enjoyment of literature and the arts of peace is strength, then even age-old China may lay claim to a substantial share of these higher values.

China was prone to overemphasize age. Although she produced a high culture, she has not made the progress which a more equal weighing of the values of youth and age would have yielded. It is difficult to hold their balance in just the right proportion. But our overemphasis on the one phase is just as detrimental as was China's overvaluing of the other.

This analysis shows that the wisest men of the state are usually those who have lived long and experienced much; that the ancient civilizations held the values of age in the highest esteem, receiving from them the fullest benefit; that, in part, due to this fact, they reached a high level of culture.

When we consider the values of age to society as well as to itself; when we consider the role age has played in building the great cultures of the past, we realize that our culture today also has need of these values. It cannot afford either to neglect or to disparage them. This is done when its attitude is that age has nothing more in life to offer, an attitude that is tantamount to admitting that it

has no need of the slowly accumulated attributes of the mind and character which depend on a long period of development. A society

which does not avail itself of the values of age is selling its birthright. It is sacrificing its most valuable assets.

Smallpox and War

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The actions of the government of the city of New York and of its citizens in the spring of 1947 in their efforts to prevent smallpox affords an excellent lesson of what can be done about war. The latter, as two World Wars have shown, is a far greater scourge and menace to human welfare than any disease.

Consider how differently men react to fear of death from disease and from war; how different are the moral reactions. It became a public and private duty to cooperate in order to prevent the spread of smallpox. With moral enthusiasm, without hatreds, fears or suspicions, people voluntarily submitted to vaccination. Similarly, with moral enthusiasm, citizens and governments should act to remove war and its causes.

In regard to war, despite the existence of the United Nations and other peace efforts, public and private action is one of superstition, unscientific thinking and planning, and indifference. If the same enthusiasm for the public good existed, we would remove from our minds and actions all those incantations now used to prevent war as formerly we abandoned incantations against smallpox.

Instead of scientific and democratic planning and action to abolish war, the peace is being made by the very same forces, politicians and military men of all nations, who did nothing to abolish international anarchy in 1914 or after. Instead, these men, now as in 1919, have set up the United Nations, little different than the League. The machinery is much the same: the veto of the big nations over the small ones. The foundation for each organization is the same: competitive independent nationalism with each nation a rival of the other for power, trade and prestige; and competitive independent psychologies of individuals that create and sustain such institutions.

Government officials of all nations, instead of telling the scientific truths as to the causes and nature of war, tell now, as in 1914-1919, that war is unilaterally caused by an "aggressor" nation attacking "peace-loving" nations that had no responsibility whatsoever for the outbreak of war.

If we would learn a lesson from the use of the scientific method in medicine and its application to the smallpox crisis in New York City, these things would happen:

1. The national government would form a Peace Committee composed of leading social scientists, psychologists and biologists to do for peace what the physical scientists on the Manhattan project did for war through the atomic bomb.

2. This committee would merely synthesize the knowledge in the different fields, already available in books, monographs and magazines in any public library, that shows that all men and nations are responsible for war because of their undemocratic psychologies and institutions. Their synthesis and report to the public would show how democratic living would remove war.

3. The public, if it showed as much interest in its total welfare as it did in New York City alone with regard to one minor aspect only, would demand that our government create such a committee, and it would cooperate with the United Nations for similar ones everywhere.

4. The governments and the public would sponsor public meetings of various groups—religious, business, labor, and others—to discuss the findings of the Peace Committee and to act upon them. The public would then vote for officials to carry out their findings, making

such reforms in business, in government and in individual outlooks as would be necessary to abolish war.

What would this Peace Committee report as to the nature, causes and cure of war? It would define war as the struggle of organized groups for power to dominate and exploit each other. As for causes, the committee would point out the institutional and psychological causes. It would be shown, as have the historians Fay and Moon, to mention only two, that war is due to the international anarchy of independent states competing in peace and war through policies of imperialism to obtain markets, prestige and military advantages, each serving the other. This imperialism is due to competitive independent institutions at home within each nation. Under them, people work together for the benefit of an owning class and, contrary to democratic principles, the people have no voice or control in its functioning.

The historians would modify this analysis with two words of caution: (1) That Russia, though communistic in intent, is an imperialistic state, since it too is independent and competes for power, either for security in a capitalistic world or for power to spread Communism in order to obtain security by that means.

(2) That while competitive independent institutions are the major outward causes of war, the *more important one is the universal psychology of competitive independence for personality integration*. This psychology causes and sustains competitive institutions.

The historians would call upon the psychologists and biologists to show that such institutions and psychologies are due to fears of insecurity, wrong thinking, and non-objective knowledge; that there is nothing in human nature which causes war or desires to dominate; but that man's problem is due to the wrong methods and kinds of personality integration.

Everywhere man seeks an escape from conflict and insecurity which impose fear of loss of life or injury and inferior status of some kind. Mistakenly we all seek egocentric integration by egocentric methods. We seek competitive independent satisfactions and securities

by the very same methods and are constantly renewing our problems. We then live and fight, using force and competition (sublimated force) to obtain our end. We all know that the way we live is wrong for we say: "War is wrong, but—necessary in self-defense. Competition is wrong, but—necessary in self-defense."

Such a view, universally held, is an encouraging rather than a discouraging one, for it shows that man places moral values first. His mistake is to live by the ethics that the "end justifies the means." His ethics should be the "means justifies the end," if he would be morally, psychologically and intellectually consistent.

The Peace Committee, implementing these theses by terse summaries of already existing knowledge, known but to a few cloistered scholars, could easily point the moral. The abolition of war will come through the adoption of co-operative institutions and psychologies as the means of social salvation and personality integration on cooperative, that is, democratic, levels.

Specifically, the committee would show that democracy, which exists nowhere, not even in the United States, despite our rationalizations, nor in Russia, requires the following implementation: (1) A world federal government patterned on the principles of our national structure. (2) Public ownership of land and capital so that people not only work together as they do under capitalism but work for each other instead of for a class of owners. (3) Democratic psychologies of good will towards individuals of one's own family, ethnic and religious group. Cooperation among individuals and among groups, as John Dewey has defined it, is the essence of democracy and a democratic morality. (4) To secure such institutions and psychologies of cooperation, the committee need only point to education as the means of such social change. They need not call for any new education. All that is needed is that already accepted objectives and methods of objective and scientific thinking should be used instead of given lip-service as is the practice in schools everywhere.

While peace education would place stress on constructive thought and action, it would

need to prepare the way by showing the many fallacies existing in human thought and action, which make people indifferent if not hostile to peace. Among these fallacies are: (1) The belief that war is due to bad men, bad human nature or an "aggressor" nation. (2) The belief that human nature is born bad and thus problems are insoluble or that owing to bad nature, competition is necessary in self-defense. (3) The belief that in the United States, since we have democratic political forms of government, the people rule. Lincoln Steffens and many political scientists have refuted this belief beyond question. (4) The fallacy of believing that since we prove the other man or nation wrong, or chiefly so, that one's side or self is right and moral.

In short, we need to become as scientific in our thinking about our social problems as we have become about those involving diseases and medicine.

Governments, education and religious groups should call for public vaccination against the causes of war and should conduct a plan of education and social reform to create a peaceful democratic society. The first step is to point out the psychological nature and cause of our problem: competition for independent integration. This is illusory, immoral, and objectively and psychologically wrong. The scholars know it. Let them publicize it. A National Government Peace Planning Committee is the means to that end!

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

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FILMS

"The Shrine of a Nation." This 16 mm. film (two reels, 14 minutes) is now available. The history of Westminster Abbey is the history of England. Here Parliament once met, and here for centuries the kings and queens of England have been crowned. It is of interest to social studies classes. Write to British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y.

"The Making and Shaping of Steel." This 16 mm. sound film, in seven parts, is a dramatic treatment of steel, suitable for high school social studies classes. Slow motion scenes explain the operations too fast for the human eye to follow. Animated diagrams describe the functioning of blast furnaces and open hearth furnaces, the manufacture of seamless tube and welded pipe—to give an unbroken, easily understood, yet detailed story of how steel is made and converted into useful forms. Write to Motion Pictures Division, U. S. Steel Corporation, New York, N. Y.

"The River." This is a 16 mm. sound film, running time 30 minutes, showing the misuse of the Mississippi waterways and offering sugges-

tions for preventing future waste. Write to National Cooperatives, 167 West 12 Street, New York 11, for a recommended list of cartoons, documentaries and shorts.

"The Modern Chippewa Indian." This film runs approximately ten minutes and is produced in color and sound. It deals primarily with the economical and cultural advancement of the modern Indian. Particular emphasis is placed on their contribution to our natural, social, and economic welfare. Write to Simmel-Meserve Corporation, Los Angeles, California.

"Arizona," "California," "Utah," are three films in a series "This Land of Ours." Each gives a beautiful, educational picture of the high-spots and more important the varied industries and life of the people of each state covered. These are 16 mm. films with running time of 11 minutes each.

"Historic Death Valley." Fascinating Death Valley, a weird and silent region created millions of years ago, is pictured in its natural gorgeous colors. The fate of its early explorers gave it its name. Here, as everywhere, history goes hand in hand with geography. An educational film that is rated the best of its kind.

This is a 16 mm. film with a running time of 22 minutes.

"Death Valley Monument." A fine film more condensed than "Historic Death Valley," but gives more detail on legendary "Death Valley Scotty" and his castle. This is a 16 mm. film with running time of 11 minutes.

"Land of the Incas." A pictorial study of one of the world's great empires. An easily understood explanation of the archaeological importance of Inca lore. This is a 16 mm. film with running time of 11 minutes.

"Our Flag." An effective story which tells the history of the flag, its use and care. This is a 16 mm. film with running time of 11 minutes.

For the above films, unless otherwise specified, write to The Stanley Bowmar Company, 2067 Broadway, New York 23, N. Y.

SLIDES

The following "Visualized Units In Color" include ten selected 2" x 2" colored slides with a teacher's manual for each unit:

New England States—The People and Their Work

New England States—Physical Features

Middle Atlantic States—Physical Features

Middle Atlantic States—The People and Their Work

Southern States—Physical Features

Southern States (Eastern)—The People and Their Work

Southern States (Western)—The People and Their Work

Central States (Eastern)—Physical Features

Central States (Eastern)—The People and Their Work

Central States (Western)—Physical Features

Central States (Western)—The People and Their Work

Northwestern States—Physical Features

Northwestern States—The People and Their Work

Southwestern States—Physical Features

Southwestern States—The People and Their Work

Write to the Society for Visual Education, Inc., 100 East Ohio Street, Chicago 11, Illinois.

MAPS, CHARTS, AND POSTERS

"Map of Mankind." A notable and dramatic

map, vitally portraying the racial traits, characteristic poses and habitats of many famous figures and busts, sculptured by Malvina Hoffman, in the Hall of Man at the Chicago Natural History Museum (Field Museum). No expense was spared in the execution of this work. Almost 100 original bronze figures have been reproduced in 11 beautiful pastel colors by the Duot process. These are geographically arranged around an interpretive map showing the habitat of races the world over. Write to C. S. Hammond and Company, 88 Lexington Avenue, New York 16, N. Y.

"Picture Map of Southeast Asia." An illustrated map decorated with motifs from Southeast-Asian art; it is accompanied by an insert sheet with explanatory text and pictures of native peoples, houses, means of transportation, etc., to be colored, cut out, and pasted on the map. Size 50" x 38". Write to the Friendship Press, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York 10, N. Y.

"Picture Map of India." An illustrated map, decorated with Indian designs and pictures, showing some of the physical features of the country. An insert sheet carrying explanatory text and pictures of types of homes, means of transportation, festival times, and modern trends, accompanies the map. Size 50" x 38". Write to The Friendship Press, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York 10, N. Y.

"Friendship Map of India." An attractive, decorative map with pictures showing representative industries, people, buildings, products, etc. In five colors. Size 27" x 32". Write to The Friendship Press, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York 10, N. Y.

RADIO

Columbia Broadcasting System, Wrigley Building, Chicago, Illinois, will send on request a 1947 Calendar Manual: "C.B.S. American School of the Air." It contains programs of interest to social studies classes.

"World Security Workshop": WENR, 9:00-9:30 P.M. (C.S.T.) Thursday, may be heard over the American Broadcasting Company.

"University of Chicago Round Table": WMAQ, 12:30-1:00 P.M. (C.S.T.) Sunday, may be heard over the National Broadcasting Company.

"Youth Asks the Government": American

Broadcasting Company, 1-1:30 P.M. (E.S.T.). Washington children interrogate members of Congress, department heads, and administrative leaders on the workings of government branches.

"Our Foreign Policy": University of the Air, over N.B.C. stations, 7-7:30 P.M. (E.S.T.). Representatives of State Department, members of Congress, and others discuss foreign policy issues. Copies of broadcasts are available.

"World Neighbors": American School of the Air, over Columbia Broadcasting System, 5-5:30 P.M. (E.S.T.). Information in dramatic form about our fellow men in other countries.

"Story Behind the Headlines": N.B.C. program, 11:15-11:30 P.M. (E.S.T.). The American Historical Society, and Caesar Saerchinger analyze historical significance of each week's events.

News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

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Walter Lippmann holds a high place among the political thinkers of the nation. Not all his pronouncements have been popular or even sound, but there are few who can match his ability to go to the heart of a complex social problem and present its basic truths in clear-cut fashion. A particularly striking example is his article entitled, "The Unity of Mankind," which appeared in *The Rotarian* for October. It is a condensation of a speech he gave before the 1947 convention of Rotary International at San Francisco. As a simple yet forceful analysis of the condition of the world in the twentieth century, it is hard to find its equal.

People everywhere are pessimistic of the future. They see the beautiful picture of one world disintegrating before their eyes as it becomes more and more apparent that there is a great gulf between two segments of it. It is easy to believe that mankind is getting nowhere. Mr. Lippmann begins his article by reminding us that we are not splitting into two worlds because we have never yet had one world. He points out that the idea of a universal political organization is as old as history, but that all the centuries of civilization have never achieved it. All the leagues and confederations and empires of the past have been regional unities at best.

Never until the United Nations came into existence only two years ago has there been even a token union of all the races, nations and religions of the earth. Mr. Lippmann feels that the essential fact is that mankind has actually reached this culminating point after thousands

of years, if only temporarily. We may lose our foothold on the summit for a time, but the pathway has been found and it will be easier to reach the goal again. To quote Mr. Lippmann's words: "The pains, the anxiety, and the agony of our era are not those of a world which is dying, but of a new world which is being born." That is the real message of hope, the antithesis of the doctrines of those who believe that mankind is rushing pell-mell to final self-destruction.

In evidence that this is actually the highest stage yet reached by mankind in its search for unity, Mr. Lippmann reminds us that there has always been an iron curtain between East and West. There have always been irreconcilable differences in religion, custom and government that have never been overcome. It should be a matter for rejoicing that we have now come closer to doing it than any preceding generation, rather than of despair that we have not fully succeeded in less than a decade. We should realize too the real progress that has been made in breaking down the isolation of the Western hemisphere.

For the first time in history the Americas are accepting their place as a part of the world community. These things are tremendous steps forward and are too likely to be forgotten in the discouragement over the schisms that still remain. It will take time to overcome the difficulties that yet exist, because all the governments which must put world organization into operation are in an historical sense new and undeveloped. None, even our own, is settled and ex-

perienced. Governments which are uncertain of themselves cannot be expected to produce the first universal society overnight.

Mr. Lippmann believes that when a global society is finally achieved it will not be on the pattern of any one social system now existing. "If it is to be a world that is substantially at peace, it must be a world which is united but is not uniform." Like our own motto, it must be "one out of many." "Unless we make the toleration of diversity the first principle of the United Nations, we shall engender not a universal peace, but a universal war." No nation must seek to impose its system on others, nor must any people permit another's ideas to be imposed upon it without resistance. World society will not come about by fusing all the various civilizations into one, but by a confederation that recognizes and respects these differences, and keeps them in harmony and balance. The cohesive force will be toleration and a common acceptance of a body of universal principles about justice and the rights of man. Surely the whole world has come closer to acknowledging such principles by the very unanimity with which it has fought against those who denied them. In short, Mr. Lippmann's belief is that we have far more reason to be optimistic than otherwise. We have come a long way in historical development in a few decades. No doubt there is a bitter and lengthy struggle yet ahead of us before we finally overcome the chains of the past, but he sees no reason to believe that because the present picture is a distressing one we should feel that the progress of two thousand years and more has reached a final and insurmountable barrier. All the lessons of history teach otherwise.

WHAT IS LOYALTY?

Teachers of the social studies, more than any others in the profession, are likely to be confronted at some time with a problem involving the meaning of loyalty to the United States. New Jersey teachers, for example, still recall the loyalty pledges they were compelled to sign a few years ago. Social studies teachers are constantly in danger of having their patriotism called in question by some reactionary parent or community group because of something said or read in the classroom. Any attempt to present or to permit the presentation of facts about

social or political questions which do not square with the beliefs of local interests may bring a storm about the teacher's head. Even where this danger is slight, the problem of the definition and meaning of loyalty will arise in class discussions because it is so widely misunderstood and misused throughout society.

An excellent article in the September *Harper's*, by Henry Steele Commager, should provide good material for teachers who want a first-rate analysis of the meaning of loyalty. It was entitled, "Who Is Loyal to America?" Mr. Commager brings out the basic fallacy in the thinking of so many people on this subject when he emphasizes that to them loyalty usually means simply conformity to conditions as they are. To such people, and they are legion, it is disloyal to question our existing social or economic practices and customs. To suggest that the private enterprise system is not perfect, that there should be socialized medicine, or planned employment, or a guaranteed annual wage, or that Americanism really means racial equality, is to insure that you will be regarded in some places and by some people as a dangerous and disloyal person. Even an attempt to discuss objectively the merits and demerits of Socialism, Communism, labor unions, government planning, the TVA or some other matter which runs counter to the rooted beliefs and interests of a group will be cause for suspicion. To the true reactionary these things are no more suitable for pro and con discussion than murder or polygamy.

Mr. Commager shows clearly that this identification of loyalty with conformity of belief is false. If it were not, America would not have grown to be what it is, for all our progress has come from the efforts of those who questioned the status quo. If loyalty means conformity to the existing pattern, the list of disloyal Americans would have to include Washington, Samuel Adams, Jefferson, Lincoln, Garrison, Altgeld, Brandeis and hundreds of others who were indeed reviled in their own time but who have been redeemed by success or the passage of years. As Mr. Commager points out, those most quick to seek out disloyalty in others are those who themselves possess some vested interest, some property right, privilege or place of superiority which they are in constant fear

of losing. It is not that they love America so much, but that they love their privileges more.

The truly disloyal are those who by their actions violate the real things that make America superior to other nations—our democratic rights. Those who stir up race or class hatreds, play crooked politics, frustrate the will of the majority by filibusters and cheap tricks, take part in lynch law or make a mockery of our courts of justice, deny the equal freedoms of the press, speech and assembly, or selfishly stir up national antagonisms, these, Mr. Commager says, are the really disloyal Americans. And paradoxically enough, these things are most often done in the name of loyalty to America. The true test of the loyalty of an act or statement is not whether it attacks an existing condition, but whether it threatens the equal rights of all individuals to life, liberty, or the pursuit of happiness. This is the meaning which our young people must be brought up to understand and accept. Opposition to my comfort and prosperity is not the mark of your disloyalty, but opposition to my right to be treated like any other American, including yourself, is the sure evidence of un-Americanism.

NOTES

Pleasant reading for anyone fond of historical research is the article entitled, "The Historian and Life," by Herbert A. Kellar in *The Mississippi Valley Historical Review* for June. This article was the presidential address given at the fortieth annual meeting of the Association, and it rambles enjoyably over a number of phases of the author's interests and experiences. He discusses such diverse subjects as the rarity of great men in successive generations of the same family, the problems incident to the great increase of source materials for contemporary history, the training of research historians, and his personal memories of such historians as Dana C. Munro, Ulrich Phillips, Robert Binkley, and Douglas McMurtrie.

William Lewin had an article in *The Saturday Review of Literature* for September 13 which gave a good survey of the present status of visual aids in education. He described the extent to which they are being used in schools; it is interesting to learn that the armed forces have purchased more sound projectors than have all our schools since movies were invented.

The most valuable feature of the article is the specific information and comments on the leading sources of films and equipment.

Well worth reading also is Norman Cousins' editorial in the same issue of SRL. It is a sharp criticism of American education for its failure to do what we mean when we say that education is the only answer to the world's troubles. Mr. Cousins says what we all know—that our educational product falls far short of being the cultural and inspirational force it should and must be if it is to have any real influence over the passions of men. He does not blame the schools, but rather the American people who have failed to provide the money and the support that would make possible the best teachers and the best material equipment. His point can be summarized in one quotation: "We may be able to buy vital leadership for \$35 a week, but don't count on it."

"The Use of Visual Aids in Political Science Teaching," by John D. Millett, in the June issue of *The American Political Science Review* should be of interest to social science teachers on both the college and secondary level. It discusses at length various types of visual material useful in this particular field, where to obtain them and how to utilize them to best advantage. The author brings out the fact that university teaching in the social sciences has devoted its attention almost exclusively to subject matter, with little regard to methodology or the psychology of presentation. It has been too often assumed that if the instructor's lectures presented the material of the subject, his duty was done, and the rest was up to the student. Everyone can recall more than one outstanding example from his own experience of college instructors who were undoubtedly fine scholars but hopeless teachers. Mr. Millett believes that college teachers should not be exempt from an understanding and application of modern teaching methods. This is particularly true today when a large proportion of college classes is composed of young men who are familiar with the up-to-date and efficient methods of instruction that were used in the armed services. The college teacher who makes no effort to present his subject effectively is certain to suffer by contrast in his students' estimation.

A recent public opinion report of the National Opinion Research Center at the University of Denver is called, "Where UNESCO Begins" and is a survey of public attitudes in fields with which UNESCO is concerned, such as world-mindedness, the prospects for peace or war, and mass communications. The price of the report (No. 34) is 50 cents.

Since there is probably no class in current problems which is not devoting a considerable portion of its time to the United Nations, it is important that teachers know what is available in the field of authentic background material on this subject. The United Nations Department of Public Information makes available to schools a variety of teaching aids. The *Guide for Lecturers and Teachers*, a pamphlet issued in August, discusses the history and organization of the United Nations, the work which it has done to date, and the organization and work of the specialized agencies, such as UNESCO. Two 35 mm., single frame film strips are also available. One deals with the Secretariat and the other with the Economic and Social Council. These materials may be ordered free of charge by the heads of school systems from the Chief of Educational Liaison of the U. N. Department of Public Information, Lake Success, N. Y. The documentary film, *The People's Charter*, which shows the formation of the United Nations, is distributed by Films of the Nation, Inc., 55 West 45th Street, New York City.

The Bureau of Publications of Teachers College, Columbia University, has recently issued a 29-page annotated bibliography on atomic energy, prepared by Israel Light. It contains 257 references chosen for their suitability for schools and discussion groups, and includes bibliographies, books, pamphlets, periodicals, and printed documents. Each reference is briefly described and its area of usefulness indicated. The price of the bibliography is 35 cents.

Air-Age Education Research, 80 East 42nd Street, New York, has announced through its director, Dr. N. L. Engelhardt, Jr., the inauguration of a "Classroom in the Air" program, a service in which groups of students are taken on specially conducted air tours of one or more days. Instructors are provided, and the tour is planned in order to provide maximum educational benefits.

The Long Island Social Studies Council is conducting an excellent project in local history for teachers this fall. It is actually a practical 40-hour course in Long Island history, and as such its participants will receive in-service credit from the State Department of Education. The program calls for a planning session involving a general survey of Long Island, four historical tours of a full day each, and a final round table discussion. Individual work will include the preparation of an independent study of some historical site or incident peculiar to the area in which each teacher participant teaches, and the preparation of a map or pictures of important areas covered by the tours. The Chairman of the project is Miss Gertrude Wetterauer of Hicksville High School. A program such as this has many values, and is worth the consideration of social studies teachers in any geographical area.

The Middle States Council for the Social Studies will hold its first meeting in connection with the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools at Chalfonte-Haddon Hall, Atlantic City, on Saturday, November 29, 1947. The topic will be "Teaching Youth the World Responsibilities of Americans." At half-past ten, there will be panel discussions and at the luncheon, a speaker of renown. This year's subject follows naturally those of previous years on the changes in teaching social studies as a result of the war and the postwar situations and on the role of our nation as a world leader.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by IRA KREIDER

Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

Government and Liberty: The American System. By William Beard. Garden City: Halcyon House, 1947. Pp. 362. \$2.00.

The son of distinguished parents shows the influence of his environment in this penetrating analysis of government in the United States. Here in convenient form is an examination of the function and organization of the different levels of government, local, state, and national, as they have developed in the past and as they operate at the present time. It is also a clearly written account of the workings of the largest and oldest democracy.

Dr. Beard traces the background of our present institutions and stresses the struggle for recognition of individual liberties and participation in government. His account is not about the abstract theories of political science; instead, he discusses government in actual operation. The author's chief concern is about the expansion of governmental activities and responsibilities that has taken place in recent years. While it is true that the people themselves have been most eager in seeking the favors and services of government, such expansion can threaten the existence of democratic government. The feature of democracy, as Dr. Beard reminds us, is limited constitutional government as against the powerful forces of government by despotism or dictatorship. For democracy to exist, it must adhere to the constitutional limitations imposed on all the agencies of government. When the balance of government is upset, by increased authority of the executive, as has taken place during times of crisis, or from faulty operation of the party system, the essentials of democracy are destroyed.

Dr. Beard's solution to the problem emphasizes action by individuals to ensure recognition of the rights of individuals. The author makes several suggestions to be followed by citizens wishing to influence the course of government. Among the suggestions are: corresponding with governmental officials about points of

policy, utilizing all the privileges of suffrage, and active participation in party organizations. Above all, however, the citizen must be completely informed about all aspects of government. This detailed study will be a useful source of that information. The book is broad in its coverage of material, explicit in its presentation of ideas, and clear-sighted in its conclusions. Mature high school students should appreciate the challenge of Dr. Beard's remarks, and teachers should use the book as a convenient reference.

WILLIAM G. TYRELL

Columbia University
New York City

Leviathan in Crisis. Edited by Waldo R. Browne. New York: The Viking Press, 1946. Pp. xvi, 430. \$3.75.

"Here, then, in this volume is a critical diagnosis of the devastating world-disease, Leviathanitis, more fully and explicitly and realistically formulated than between any other pair of covers." In view of the vast literature on the nature and problems of the state, this is a presumptuous claim; but here is indeed an international symposium which challenges axioms and stimulates a re-examination of fundamentals. It presents the views of 54 modern critics of the nation-State system. Twenty-five of them are British; 19 are Americans; and the remaining authors are of seven different nationalities. In time the selections range from 1911 to 1945, from Norman Angell's *The Great Illusion* to Emery Reves' *The Anatomy of Peace*. Twenty of the essays were written before the rise of the totalitarian State, but they do not seem to be at all out of date. Indeed, the most remarkable thing about the 54 contributions is the essential agreement in their diagnosis. The nation-State, they find, threatens to become a super-State, a God-State, an end in itself; the appearance of the totalitarian State and the "belief in the State as an archetypal entity," to use John Dewey's words, have presented a fundamental challenge to the demo-

cratic way of life and the peace of the world.

Although in essential agreement in most respects, these essays naturally reveal differences in emphasis and in interpretation. Mariadas Ruthnaswamy's plea for a community of States is a far cry from the assumptions of Lenin and Oppenheimer that the class-struggle has been the determinant in the rise of States. There is the inevitable attempt to distinguish between "State," "government," "society," and "nation," with the inevitable differences of opinion. Laski defends pluralism, while Friedrich and others attack it. Some regard the State as wholly evil; others, like Angell, accept it as a necessary convenience; still others, like Dean Inge and MacIver, point to the services which a State may render. Conceptions of the meaning of sovereignty, and of its relation to the State, are exceedingly varied, "The modern idea of the State," writes Krabbe, "is absolutely opposed to the idea of sovereignty." Friedrich insists that "both 'State' and 'sovereignty' are symbols of totalitarian government." Laski emphasizes "the incompatibility of the sovereign State with the world we require," whereas Woolf holds that "States are not incompatible with a highly organized system of international government."

Teachers of the social studies would do well to ponder on the essay by George A. Coe (pp. 341-347) on "State Sovereignty in the Classroom." "There is a tendency," he charges, "to rest back upon an assumption that political values, at least basic ones, have been determined and fixed; that any questioning of them in the school would amount to disrespect for the sovereign State, and that an attempt to revise them would make one's loyalty questionable. . . . Such criticism is nowhere more in order than in the schools. . . . Nothing short of drastic political realism is educationally sound."

This book is an important contribution to political realism, a reasoned diagnosis of a near-fatal disease. It should be required reading for every adult, and particularly for teachers and statesmen.

NORMAN D. PALMER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Pageant of Middle American History. By Anne Merriam Peck. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1947. Pp. 496. \$4.00.

To the "Pageants Series" has been added another history that is as entertaining and informative for the general reader as any of its predecessors in the Series. In the pages of *The Pageant of Middle American History*, the author has caught the charm and the robustness, the good and the corruptness, the primitive and the modern, the naiveté and the guile to be found in the countries about which she writes.

Miss Peck has surveyed every phase of the history of the area from the period before the age of exploration to the present. The early chapters deal with the native civilizations before the coming of the Spaniards. The progress of these peoples, the Mayas, Toltecs, and Aztecs, is described in sufficient detail to give the reader a fair idea of the heights which they attained. The next chapters tell of the coming of the Spaniards and of the conquest and subjugation of the natives, who could have given Spain ideas and material things of value equivalent to the gold and silver taken by the Spaniards blinded by their own greed. We are loathe to think kindly of the Spaniards, except in a few individual cases such as Bartolomé de Las Casas, but the author has written in such an unprejudiced manner that even while condemning their cruelty and greed, one cannot but admire the courage of these men who conquered natives and climate, and suffered untold hardships to attain their goal, selfish as it was.

Once the land and riches were in the hands of Spain, the story of Spanish rule gives one a clear insight as to why she not only failed to keep Middle America, but lost all her other once great colonial possessions as well. Rather briefly, and yet with the most important events well discussed, there is the story of the movements which brought each of the countries of Middle America its independence.

The best chapters in the book deal with the trials and tribulations of the countries during the nineteenth century. Much emphasis is laid on the relations of nations among themselves in this period. The troubles which arose in various countries due to the activities of the filibusters and dictators are explained, and credit is given to those who through their dictatorial powers did bring about certain reforms. Told from the point of view of the social and political development of the peoples, the story never fails to make the reader see

that the little people of Middle America are constantly striving for the ideals of the rights of all people—the Indian has little or no conception of the idea of a political democracy, but he has always struggled courageously for the right to the land which he believes is rightfully his.

Another phase of Middle American history which is very well written is the story of Manifest Destiny and Yankee Imperialism and its effect. Without taking sides, the author sketches the important facts concerning such problems as those bringing about the Mexican War and intervention in Nicaragua, and allows the reader to draw his own conclusions as to the justification of some acts and the unreasonableness of others.

There are so many things of historical importance discussed that it is difficult to draw the line in mentioning them in a review—the Maximilian affair, the investment of foreign capital, attempts at unification through federation, the history of the building of the Panama Canal. All of these and many other events are described in sufficient detail to give one an understanding of the forces that were involved in creating the Middle America with which we are familiar at present. The review would not be complete without mentioning the really excellent development of the story of Mexico, her problems, her successes and failures up to the present and her position as a real leader of the nations of Middle America.

Typographically the book is very attractive, and the decorations by the author at the beginning of each chapter add much to the general appearance. The book lacks a good map of the entire area. There are five attractively sketched maps, but they do not answer the purpose for the reader who is concerned with the geography of the history about which he is reading. While the author has used a minimum of Spanish terms, it might be of value to the average reader if there were footnotes or a glossary to explain these terms.

When reading such a survey as this, one realizes that Middle American history could make a great contribution to world progress if the world would read and heed its lesson of the tragedy of greed and lust for power. What great things might have come from the Mayan

and Aztec civilizations had it not been for Spanish greed! What could have been the gain for these countries in recent years if their destinies had been controlled by orderly processes of government in which the dignity and rights of all men had been respected! This book, in summarizing the story of the countries and peoples of Middle America, gives one an idea of what could have been if the leaders, foreign and some native, had sought the greatest good for the greatest number, rather than the greatest gain for a chosen few.

For the general reader and the young student interested in Latin American affairs this book is almost "must reading." For the specialist in history it offers a very fine summary and an excellent bibliography for further research.

HELEN M. CLARK

Abington Senior High School
Abington, Pennsylvania

Economic Roads for American Democracy. By William Van Til. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1947. Pp. ix, 252. \$1.80.

This little book is the first of a series sponsored by the Consumer Education Study, National Association of Secondary School Principals, National Education Association. It is unique and refreshing in its style and in its normative focus. If used as a supplementary text, this book can do much to aid the teacher in bringing different economic alternatives out into the open air of free inquiry.

After two brief chapters aimed at defining the problem of balancing consumption with production the author takes up five alternative "Economic Roads for American Democracy." These are: (1) The Traditional Business System; (2) The Restoration of Competition; (3) Leadership by Business; (4) A Two-front Economy; and (5) A Governmentally Planned Economy. Chapter XV concludes the 245-page discussion with a consideration of the question: "Where Do We Go From Here?"

Five G.I.'s, representing widely different backgrounds, serve to carry the discussion through the various alternatives with the aid of "Doc," a more mature individual who reminds the others of the desirability of light, not heat, in discussion. "Doc" also affords the author an opportunity to draw loose ends together with ma-

ture reflections not to be expected from the five younger men.

Each of the five chapters, which are written as partisan arguments for the alternative "roads," is followed by a descriptive factual presentation in support of that alternative. These supporting statements seem clear and well balanced.

Teaching aids include stimulating questions and activity suggestions at the end of each chapter. There are annotated references after each of the five alternative presentations. The book contains many excellent illustrations drawn by Milli Knauer Wignall.

Teachers of United States history, problems of American democracy and economics, who believe that social studies teaching should be something more than the learning of text book information, will welcome this new approach to the study of economics from the standpoint of vital choices. Those who use this book will find it a challenge; for such a shift in focus, from the descriptive to the normative, from the mere getting of lessons to an inquiry into current problems, makes new demands in classroom methodology and control. This book brings five alternatives into sharp focus. However, the problem of going somewhere beyond the mere airing of opinions will still confront each class using it. Ways of bringing pertinent facts and examples to bear on the division of opinions and loyalties, ways of guiding day by day doings and undergoings in the classroom so that democratic values and methods will become operative in young lives, must still be discovered in the context of each individual learning situation.

HOMER T. KNIGHT

Teachers College, Columbia University
New York City

A Social Interpretation of South Carolina. By G. Croft Williams. Columbia, South Carolina: University of South Carolina Press, 1946. Pp. 238. \$3.00.

I have read with keenest interest and appreciation Dr. Williams' *A Social Interpretation of South Carolina*, which is a timely study and interpretation of that state's resources and man-arrived at by the group. The results are as for social institutions. This dynamic little mon-

ograph presents in simple non-technical language and well-balanced manner the geographical, technological, cultural, and racial determinants in the historical development of the Palmetto State.

Within the limits of space, the author is selective and attains the main objectives set forth in the preface: "The purpose of this book is to show the social implication of the natural resources and the human activities of South Carolina."

In this "time of troubles," in western civilization, the individual's capacity to estimate intelligently the salient forces and factors that affect the strength and direction of its main currents will be enhanced by reading this affirmative little volume; for, as Dr. Williams states, "In the hands of South Carolinians, and in no other hands, rest the fortunes of this State," and "When the citizens of a state are informed about the social conditions within its borders, they may take measures to deal with them."

Dr. Williams is pre-eminently qualified to turn out a work of this kind. A native of the State, he did his undergraduate work at the University of the South and Virginia Theological Seminary, and was awarded the honorary degree of Doctor of Science from the University of the South in 1930. He became a member of the faculty of South Carolina in 1922, and was made Head of the Department of Sociology and Director of Social Work in 1934. His *Social Problems of South Carolina*, 1928, was a scholarly forerunner of this text, which is a "must" in the regional stress on natural and human resources.

C. N. Sisson

Coker College
Hartsville, South Carolina

Planning and Paying for Full Employment. Edited by Abba P. Lerner and Frank D. Graham. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1946. Pp. 222. \$3.00.

This work is the result of the 1944 conference that was held at Princeton by the American Conference on International Affairs. Leading economists from all over the United States attended. The date that the convention was held has not in any way changed the findings timely today as they were a year ago.

The contents of the book are divided into 11 articles, each written by a different author, and each covering some important phase of the problem of full employment. For example: one article covers the question, "Principles of Full Employment," another, "Wage Policy and Full Employment."

Henry Wallace has for a long time spoken and written for full employment. His "Sixty Million Jobs" has become a reality, but when this symposium was called at Princeton the economists that met there had the same fears that were expressed by Mr. Wallace. The fears of full scale unemployment did not materialize in the days after V-J day, and the subject of employment has received scarce notice in our press and on our radios. However, the problem is still with us and this volume remains timely.

Is the problem of full employment merely one of keeping a large percentage of our working population on the job? This is answered by Albert Halasi, one of the book's contributors, who expresses his view in this manner:

"It is desirable to have a full employment program which takes care of other social objectives as well. Some of these objectives, as developed by Lerner, are a high national dividend through improved efficiency and elimination of waste, less inequality in the distribution of income, the consumers' free choice to buy the goods they prefer, social security through freedom from want, social opportunity providing educational facilities and economic advancement; and good-neighbor relations with foreign countries." (p. 2)

What possibility have we here in the United States of accomplishing this program as proposed in this book? This is answered in the article by Dr. Frank Graham, and is the focal point around which all the other articles appear to pivot. Dr. Graham feels that the only instrument that can be used to give the results sought, is the buying and selling by the government of standard commodities. (p. 189) This theory is carried through by Professor Landauer, who stresses the success of the First Five-Year Plan of the Russians. The Professor says in part: "An immense construction program was carried out without being followed by a depression." (p. 69) The error in this reasoning

seems to hinge around the inability of the authors to appreciate that we are thinking in this country of full employment under capitalism and not under Socialism or Communism.

This work, with all its faults, has filled a need. It gives us mature and serious thought on a subject that will continue to grow in importance as our everyday economic life faces major changes.

JAMES J. FLYNN

Fordham University
New York City

Alexander the Great: The Meeting of East and West In World Government and Brotherhood.

By Charles Alexander Robinson, Jr. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1947. Pp. 252. \$3.75.

Surely at the present time the career of Alexander the Great is of peculiar interest, for his conquests helped to create that "one world" of ancient times—the Hellenistic civilization which broke down the fierce tribalism of Greek and barbarian, Jew and Gentile, and so prepared the ancient world for the teaching that all men are brothers. Furthermore, Alexander's personality was one which still exercises a spell over the minds of men. Unfortunately Professor Robinson, the author of this latest biographical sketch of Alexander, is one of the spell-bound. His book is a curious mixture of the legendary stories about Alexander, of excellent narrative, of the results of modern scholarship, and of uncritical eulogy.

There can be no doubt of the author's detailed knowledge of his subject, yet so great is his admiration for Alexander that the narrative is constantly warped in the young king's favor. Again and again, for instance, he finds excuses for Alexander's deeds of violence. True, Alexander sold tens of thousands of men, women and children into slavery, but that was the custom of the times and the slave markets were by no means oversupplied; true, he was guilty of "plain murder" in executing his faithful friend Parmenio, but "an ancient Macedonian law held that the relatives of a conspirator against the king must die, and Alexander's name, therefore, must be freed of an unjust charge." This tendency to find a palliative for every crime reaches a ludicrous extreme in this passage:

"In the cold and snow of November he turned to the Kunar and Bajaur valleys, and began

the relentless slaughter of a people known to the Greeks as Aspasians. He spread so much terror that one city after another was fired by the barbarians on his approach. But the requirements of peace were ever on his mind, too, and at one point where thousands of magnificent cattle were captured, he selected the largest and finest and sent them to Macedonia for breeding."

Professor Robinson contends that Alexander was motivated by a vision of the brotherhood of all men under one beneficent ruler, each people living according to its fashion and enjoying local autonomy under one over-all administration, but the impression gained from his own account is that Alexander was rather less of a constructive statesman, and rather more of a warrior pure and simple, than Napoleon. To Alexander's credit it must be said that he did promote intermarriage between his Macedonian followers and Persian women, he did employ Persians in high office, he did extend Attic coinage to his entire realm. Since these actions by themselves hardly justify Professor Robinson's extravagant claims, he is driven to the expedient of recounting the statesmanlike actions which Alexander would "no doubt" have performed had he lived longer. Yet at the time of his death Alexander was devoting all his energies to planning further exploration and conquest rather than to the obvious task of consolidating and administering his vast realms; Professor Robinson gives no evidence to show that he would have ceased carrying on war until his treasury was exhausted and his men mutinous. While Alexander had generous impulses and imaginative intelligence and so may have caught glimpses of the constructive opportunities open to him, desire for fame seems to have been his consuming passion and war his vocation.

This biography has merit if one is willing to accept it as simply a favorable reworking of the original accounts of Alexander. Whatever the author's bias, he includes the materials for other interpretation. The abundance of legendary tales, given almost verbatim, lends color to the narrative. The endless campaigns are well told and easy to follow (and would be still easier if the map gave all the place names mentioned in the text). The personality of the

young conqueror is vivid if not wholly admirable in its mixture of curiosity, impulsiveness, generosity, tenderness, physical bravery, violence, and increasing megalomania. And throughout the story there runs the essential problem which faces the present—how to create one polity out of many peoples and cultures.

H. W. BRAGDON

Phillips Exeter Academy
Exeter, New Hampshire

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Edited by R. T. SOLIS-COHEN
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Racial Myths. By Sister Mary Ellen O'Hanlon, O.P. Sinsinawa, Wisconsin: The Sisters of Saint Dominic, 1946. Pp. 32. Distributed by Rosary College Book Store, Rosary College, River Forest, Illinois. 25 cents.

Racial myths cited by the author include inequality among races, racial differences in human blood and body odor, mentality of the Negro, and segregation and inter-racial marriage. Basing her plea on scientific anthropology and Papal Encyclicals, the author urges full equality of opportunity for the American Negro.

Reading Ladders for Human Relations. By Margaret M. Heaton. With a preface by Hilda Taba, Director. Work in Progress Series, Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1947. Pp. 67. \$1.00.

Under a grant from the National Conference of Christians and Jews, this selected and annotated bibliography of fiction was compiled to assist in promoting understanding and cooperation among various groups. The books are arranged by theme and in order of maturity and difficulty. The pamphlet concludes with a list of publishers and an index.

Russell Sage Foundation, 1907-1946. By John M. Glenn, Lilian Brandt and F. Emerson Andrews. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 25.

This booklet, issued to mark the fortieth anniversary of the Russell Sage Foundation, contains the first two chapters of its two-volume history. The Foundation was established for the improvement of social and living conditions in the United States. Its direct work has been performed through special research depart-

ments whose general field is social work, but whose studies have included a wide variety of subjects and problems, ranging from consumer credit and business cycles to administration of WPA and from recreation to labor relations.

Report of the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, Inc., 1945-1946. New York: Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, Inc., 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 44.

The Foundation, which administers a private fund for public benefit, recognizes its obligation to report periodically the policies which govern the management of the Fund, the uses to which the Fund is put, and its beneficiaries. Some of the latter are the Sloan Kettering Institute for Cancer Research, the Frontier Nursing Service, Public Affairs Committee, Inc. and two educational associations. Grants are also made to twelve universities and colleges for various projects. An example of the last mentioned is The Round Table of the Air sponsored by the University of Chicago.

War and Human Nature. By Sylvanus M. Duvall. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 125. New York: Public Affairs Committee, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 32. 10 cents.

The author believes that war is not caused by injustice or by "have-not" nations but by the malcontents, those who are psychologically disturbed within themselves. For world peace he prescribes that the amount of frustration in the world be reduced, that social standards of success be developed that most people are capable of reaching, and that the goals for which people strive be safe for all.

Germany—Nation or No-Man's Land. By James P. Warburg. Foreign Policy Association. Headline Series No. 60. November-December 1946. New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1946. Illustrated. Pp. 64. 35 cents.

An extremely readable analysis of the problems of the four powers in occupying Germany and in reaching agreement on a peace settlement there, this booklet contributes to the public understanding of the German problem. The author believes that the Big Four must cooperate to discover how to harness the natural resources, the skill and energy of a new, peaceful German nation to the best interests of Europe and of the world.

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Child Labor—In the First Year After the War.

Annual Report for the Year Ending September 30, 1946. Publication No. 397. By Gertrude Folks Zimand, General Secretary. New York: National Child Labor Committee, 1946. Pp. 17.

This report discusses child labor, Federal action taken with respect to child labor legislation, reorganization of the Children's Bureau, and cooperation with national agencies. State and other activities, special projects, and publications complete the scope of the pamphlet.

Margin for Living: The 40 Hour Week. Pamphlet No. 396. September 1946. New York: The National Child Labor Committee, 1946. Pp. 7. Free to persons interested in securing better hours for young people.

Although the forty hour week has become a reality for many adult workers, the number of legal working hours continues to be forty-eight or more a week for the majority of young workers under eighteen because they work in non-union jobs and industries which are local rather than engaged in interstate commerce. The protection of the young worker still is determined by standards set by state child labor laws. Improvement of legal working hours for youth depends upon better state legislation.

Look Before You Leap. Pamphlet No. 397. July 1946. New York: The National Child Labor Committee, 1946. Illustrated. Pp. 19. 5 cents.

Presenting the facts that high school students should know before leaving school for employment, this booklet explains simply, the why and wherefore of child labor laws, the difference between Federal and state laws, what job prospects look like and what employers want. It suggests ways of getting advice, information and help before leaving school, and ways to develop, as a person and a worker, after the transfer has been made from school to work. A bibliography is included.

Spotlight on Gary. Text by Manet Fowler.

Cover and drawings by Russell Sherman. New York: The National Urban League, 1946. Illustrated. Pages are not numbered.

The story of the work of the National Urban League's Community Relations Project is attractively told in this booklet. Conceived in 1943, the interracial social planning project

was set in motion in 1944 when the Gary Council of Social Agencies with other groups invited the Community Relations project of the National Urban League. The seal of the League bears the legend: American Teamwork Works.

Our Children. Annual Report of the Profession to the Public. By the Executive Secretary of the National Education Association of the United States. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 16.

This leaflet describes the critical conditions in education and offers recommendations for action. Desertion of the profession by teachers, the economic and social status of the teacher, and professional security are some of the problems considered.

Annual Bulletin of Historical Literature No. XXXI. Publications for the Years 1942 to 1945. Published for the Historical Association. London: P.S. King and Staples, Ltd., 1946. Pp. 47. Price to non-members, 1s. 7d. (Post free). Members may obtain extra copies at 10d each (Post free) from the offices of the Association.

The scope of the contents of this Bulletin encompasses general works and publications in chronological periods from pre-history to contemporary history up to 1945. The notes are written in characteristic English style, brief, valuable, and readable.

Interim Suggestions for the Planning of the History Syllabus in a Modern Secondary School. Compiled by Helen M. Madeley with the help of members of the Teaching of History Committee of the Historical Association. The Historical Association. Teaching of History Leaflet No. 2. London: The Historical Association, 1946. Pp. 4. Price to non-members 4d. Post free.

The Historical Association previously issued a pamphlet on the planning of a History Syllabus. This Leaflet does not discuss general principles. It merely considers their application in a modern secondary school for intelligent pupils whose interests are not "bookish." The subjects suggested for inclusion in the syllabus are

How did men learn to live?

How did men come to live where they now do?

How have men learned to live together?

How and when have men learned to think about themselves and the world?

In the fourth year terminal courses the author suggests grouping the social studies and concentrating on one topic each term.

Due emphasis is given to time charts, the pupils' own contributions to the exhibition at the end of the term, and to the pupils' collecting information about the structure of government.

Notes on Material for the History Syllabus in the Modern School. Compiled by Helen M. Madeley with the help of the Teaching of History Committee of the Historical Association. The Historical Association Teaching of History Leaflet No. 3. London: Historical Association. (No date). Illustrated. Pp. 15. Price to non-members 8d. Post free.

This leaflet deals with topics and books likely to be useful during the first four or five terms of the Modern School Course. In view of the present difficulties in obtaining books, a number of alternatives are suggested wherever possible.

The cultural rather than the political approach to history is recommended. Suggestions are presented concerning arrangement of material, use of a date-scheme, illustrations and choice of material. Topics likely to interest the modern school pupil include food, its transportation and importation, and its increased supply by means of improved husbandry and the larger size of animals; the Olympic Games, trackways, and roads; and clothes, the wool trade, and inventions. Lists of books useful for the children's reading and for the library conclude the leaflet.

Our Times. Vol. XII No. 13, Dec. 9-13, 1946. Pp. 97-104. Published by the American Education Press, Inc. Columbus, Ohio. Subscription rates 20 cents per semester in clubs of 30 or more. Also published in Braille by the American Printing House for the Blind, Louisville, Ky.

Our Times is a national, high school current events, weekly newspaper. This illustrated issue discusses the coal miners' strike, American neutrality in 1812, 1914, and 1939, the United Nations, national health, and the American naval expedition to Antarctica.

Civic Training. Published by the American Education Press, Inc. Columbus, Ohio—New York, New York. Vol. XIV, No. 13, Dec. 9-13, 1946. Pp. 49-52. Subscription price 50 cents a year.

Civic Training is sent each week to teacher subscribers of *Our Times*, a national, high school current events newspaper. In the issue sent for review, the leading article, "Using the Community as a Social Studies Laboratory," integrates geography and social studies in making a community study. This article was prepared by Loretta Antl, the geography specialist of the American Education Press.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Story of America. By Ralph Volney Harlow. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1947. Pp. xxiii, 769, xlv. \$3.16.

New edition of a senior high school American history text.

The Far East Since 1500. By Paul E. Eckel. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1947. Pp. xiv, 820. \$5.00.

A college textbook, useful as a reference book for secondary school social studies teachers.

Our Changing Social Order. By Ruth Wood Gavian, A. A. Gray, and Ernest R. Groves. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1947. Pp. viii, 616. \$2.60.

New edition of a secondary school text for the study of contemporary problems from the sociological point of view.

The Study and Teaching of American History. Edited by Richard E. Thursfield. Washington, D. C.: The National Council for the Social Studies, 1947. Pp. xviii, 442. \$2.00, paper; \$2.50, clothbound.

The 1946 Yearbook of The National Council for the Social Studies. It contains 33 articles by leading American historians and stresses the relation of American history to international activity.

Jewish Community Life in America. By Ben M. Edidin. New York: Hebrew Publishing Company, 1947. Pp. viii, 282. \$2.50.

A description of Jewish group life in the United States written on the secondary school level.

Herbartian Contributions to History Instruction in American Elementary Schools. By Dorothy McMurtry. Teachers College, Colum-

bia University Contributions to Education, No. 920. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946. Pp. viii, 172. \$2.35.

A doctoral thesis with extensive footnotes and bibliography.

The Light Metals Industry. By Josephine Perry. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1947. Pp. 128. Illustrated. \$2.00.

One of the *America at Work* series.

Being a Citizen. By Louise I. Capen. New York: American Book Company, 1947. Pp. vii, 577. Illustrated. \$2.80.

A secondary school textbook in citizenship. *Leviathan in Crisis: An International Symposium on the State, Its Past, Present, and Future, by 54 Twentieth Century Writers.* Edited by Waldo R. Browne. New York: The Viking Press, 1946. Pp. xvi, 430. \$3.75.

A collection of abridgments of writings concerned with the theory and practice of states in general, following the theme that the sovereign state must be humanized and brought under the control of law.

Alexander the Great: The Meeting of East and West in World Government and Brotherhood. By Charles Alexander Robinson, Jr. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1947. Pp. 252. \$3.75.

A classical scholar presents for the layman an interpretation based on specialized research, depicting Alexander as a strong character who set the course for Western man.

In Search of Beauty in Music: A Scientific Approach to Musical Esthetics. By Carl E. Seashore. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947. Pp. xvi, 389. \$4.50.

Integrates the findings in research in the psychology of music in relation to the problem of esthetics.

An Introduction to American Education. By John T. Wahlquist. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947. Pp. 333. \$3.25.

An introductory course in education stressing guidance and orientation for the potential teacher.

James Harvey Robinson: Teacher of History. By Luther V. Hendricks. New York: King's Crown Press, 1946. Pp. xii, 124. Paper. \$2.00.

Traces the part that a great teacher played in influencing the twentieth century shift in the aims, content, and organization of history courses.

A History of the Problems of Education. By John S. Brubacher. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1947. Pp. xi, 688. \$4.00.

The organization is on the basis of the problems or problem areas of contemporary education.

Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work: Selected Papers, Seventy-third Annual Meeting, Buffalo, New York, May 19-23, 1946. New York: Columbia University Press, 1947. Pp. xi, 608. \$5.00.

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS August 24, 1912, as amended by the Acts of March 3, 1933, and July 2, 1946, of THE SOCIAL STUDIES, published monthly. September 25, 1947.

State of Pennsylvania,
County of Philadelphia,

Before me, a notary public in and for said State and County aforesaid, personally appeared William Martin, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of THE SOCIAL STUDIES, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, as amended by the Act of March 3, 1933, embodied in section 537, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

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WILLIAM MARTIN

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 25th day of September, 1947.

ELIZABETH MCSHEA

(My commission expires March 23, 1951.)